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TEACHER PERSONNEL

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CHAPTER I

Teacher Supply and Demand¹

EARL W. ANDERSON and R. H. ELIASSEN

REPORTS IN THIS FIELD published in 1937, 1938, or 1939 include four doctor's (1, 18, 24, 31) and three master's theses (5, 14, 34), five nationwide questionnaire studies (13, 29, 32, 33, 35), thirteen state investigations (1, 3, 7, 12, 16, 17, 18, 21, 23, 24, 26, 34, 38), one study covering a section of a state (28), a follow-up of the alumni of a college over a seven-year period (20), analysis of mores influencing the selection and retention of teachers (15), consideration of the effect of the change in birth-rate upon the demand for teachers (8), and a large number of annual reports of college placement offices. The latter reports are becoming so customary and are so numerous that they are not listed in this bibliography.

Peak in Demand-Supply Ratio

A peak in the demand for teachers as related to supply appears to have come at about the middle of the three-year period. Reports from studies covering 1937 and a part of 1938 showed a considerable increase in the demand for teachers. Reports covering the last part of 1938 and including the year 1939 showed a decrease in teacher opportunity. Thus, the annual surveys of the National Teacher Placement Association (13, 29, 35) covering more than two hundred colleges preparing teachers showed that 90 percent of those trained for elementary teaching who were available in 1936-37 were placed, as contrasted with 81 percent in 1937-38. The same survey showed a drop of from 77 percent to 59 percent in the academic areas of secondary education within the same year, and a drop from 84 percent to 72 percent within the so-called "special" areas. For the total number of graduates reported, the percent placed dropped from 83 in 1935-36 to 68 in 1937-38. Reports from teacher-placement offices covering the year 1938-39 indicate a slight further drop in opportunity.

Studies in individual states—Bailey (1) carefully surveyed the supply-demand situation in Vermont with especial analysis for the year 1937-38. Neagley (24) studied the state picture in Pennsylvania for alternate years 1928-29 to 1936-37, inclusive. He estimated the need for new teachers for that state for each year from 1937-38 to 1946-47. His report included data regarding the distribution of new teachers as to colleges in which trained, teaching load, subject areas of teaching assignments, salaries received, and previous experience. Tape (31) related teacher turnover in one-room rural schools in Michigan for the year 1929-30 to teacher background, amount and type of schooling, distance from home, total experience of the teacher, and experience of the teacher in the present position.

Commercial teachers—In response to a questionnaire, twenty states re-

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 266.

ported to Tarkington (33) that the supply of commercial teachers was less than the demand, nineteen stated that the supply and demand were fairly well balanced, and nine states had an oversupply of commercial teachers. The report for the preceding year (32) indicated that five states had an oversupply, twenty-seven had an undersupply, and seventeen had the right proportion. This would seem to show that the supply of commercial teachers is gradually approaching the demand. Some reasons given for the undersupply of commercial teachers in some of the states were: other competition at better salaries, increase in the number of positions due to the broadening of the curriculum, failure of teacher-preparing agencies to provide enough qualified teachers, failure of high-school teachers in advising students, and failure of state departments of education to gather and disseminate information regarding the needs in this area.

Follow-up study—Linton and Katsuranis (20) learned that 96 percent of all graduates receiving bachelor's or master's degrees from Teachers College, Columbia University, for the years from 1928-35, inclusive, were employed at some kind of work in 1936. Eighty percent experienced no unemployment during that period. Ten to 15 percent had taken their then present positions because no others were available.

Turnover and Interstate Migration

In West Virginia the rate of turnover was 14 percent for 1938 (7). Under these circumstances, Hyde (16) stated "the issuance of all certificates ranking below the standard normal could be stopped now without causing any deficiency in the supply of well-qualified teachers." Emmert (12) found certain preferences for men teachers in some subjects and for women in others. Briggs (4) showed that 76 percent of the teachers must participate in extracurriculum activities. Edwards (8) revealed a definite decrease in elementary-school enrolments due to the drop in birth-rate with possible implications as to the future need for high-school teachers.

Some states rely on many teachers from outside sources. This is particularly true in Vermont (1) and Wyoming (5, 34). In Pennsylvania (24) the proportion of new teachers from outside the state in 1936-37 was approximately 9 percent. Clement (6) stated that 10 percent of the new teachers in California come from out of the state. She declared that from an educational point of view it is highly desirable that teachers have easy passage from one section of the country to another.

Employment Opportunities and Guidance

A number of writers point out the great variation in opportunities in the field of teaching. They suggest that continued guidance and information be furnished students by their advisers. The importance of guidance of trainees in the selection of major subjects and subject combinations was emphasized by Bennett (2) as helpful in bringing about a better distribution of students in the various teaching fields. He showed that whereas English was the main teaching subject of 34 percent of the graduates of the College of

Education at Ohio State University in 1924-25, this was reduced (during the period from 1934-37) to 10 percent. Thus, more of the recent graduates are specializing in music, elementary-school subjects, physical education, and industrial arts than formerly. Further references emphasizing guidance are mentioned in Chapter III. Colebank (7) suggested:

Anticipated increases in staff personnel for 1938-1939 in vocational agriculture, industrial arts, commerce, music, physical education, home economics, library, point to immediate trends toward expansion of subject areas of instruction which should be significant for all advisers offering vocational guidance for teachers.

Factors affecting appointment—Hanson and Umstattd (15) studied the community mores influencing teacher employment, with specific reference to church affiliation, marital status, age preferences, and social and personal practices. They found that seventy-two communities in Minnesota reject teachers who have no church affiliation, whereas in one hundred and thirty-eight other communities this is not a significant factor. Certain faiths are discriminated against. Married women are barred in 80 percent of the communities, altho one-half of the superintendents prefer married men. The desirable ages are from twenty to thirty years. Two-thirds of the communities reported that the use of tobacco by men would not jeopardize their employment, but that women who smoked would be rejected. Women are rejected more frequently than men for failure to attend church or for activities in politics although these activities are deemed important in half of the communities studied. Card playing was listed as a handicap in only four communities. Six communities would refuse those who dance.

Factors affecting supply—Sangren (27) discussed the efforts made in Michigan to reduce the oversupply and to improve the qualifications of teachers. Owen (25) condemned the laxity of our present teacher-training program. He recommended an annual teacher quota in Pennsylvania, determined and prescribed by state authorities, and he would have more careful selection of students in training. Marple (22) was of the opinion that other inducements than chance to serve must be offered if capable persons are to be attracted into teaching. Some of these factors are salary considerations and opportunities for retirement. Willey (38) would raise standards and limit the output.

CHAPTER II

Measurement of Teaching Ability¹

A. S. BARR

WHILE there appears to be a growing interest in the measurement of teaching ability, the number of published reports in this area is small, only twelve such studies having been published for the three-year period covered by this summary. These published reports present general analyses of the problem of the measurement of teaching ability; studies of the use of rating scales for ratings by pupils and students and for self-ratings and ratings by supervisors; studies of tests and test results of qualities commonly associated with teaching success; and statistical studies of test reliability and validity.

Approaches to Measurement of Teaching

Barr (39) pointed out that there are now in use two basically different approaches to the measurement of teaching ability aside from the measurement of pupil changes, namely, the static measurement-of-teacher's-qualities approach and the dynamic evaluation-of-performance approach. Each presents its own peculiar difficulties. If we employ the qualities approach, there is little agreement among workers relative to the qualities essential to success in teaching, the amounts of these qualities necessary for success, the relative importance of the several qualities considered essential to success, and how best to define these qualities. Further, in attempting to pursue the quality approach, one encounters the specificity issue common to all trait approaches to the study of human abilities. On the other hand, in studying performance, one must develop some working relationship between principles and technics.

Van Denburg (50) presented an objective rating scale for high-school teachers of biology based upon observable teacher activities. This scale offers an interesting and worthwhile approach to a difficult problem but is subject to the limitations of the activity approach, namely, that the *appropriateness* aspect of activities may be overlooked. Bryan (42) reported a scale for recording the ratings of teachers by secondary-school pupils. He emphasized the importance of the pupil's attitude in learning and the improvement in teaching resulting from these ratings. Beaumont (41) described a plan employed at the University of Kentucky in estimating the quality of students who continue their work in the department of psychology and the type of work they do in advanced courses. The assumption underlying this approach is that the effect produced in the student is a valid measure of teaching ability and that, among other things, students should be provided with adequate motivation.

Cooke (43) reported the results of a study of the self-ratings of 217

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 267.

teachers as compared with principals' ratings, the Coxe-Orleans Prognosis Test of Teaching Ability, and an aptitude test. Few statistically significant coefficients of correlation were found.

Teacher Attitudes and Adjustment

Three studies of tests or test results of qualities commonly associated with teaching efficiency have been reported. Hartmann (45) presented an analysis of the attitudes of teachers on social, political, and economic problems. Teachers, like other citizens, differ widely in their opinions about these mooted issues. He found that liberalism in the field of human relations is more prevalent among men teachers, among married teachers (regardless of sex), and among instructors having few or no dependents. Elementary teachers are less liberal than secondary-school teachers. Emery (44) reported the results of a study of the attitudes of prospective teachers on a number of social and educational practices and discovered favorable attitudes on all save capitalism and the Townsend Plan. Peck (47) studied the adjustment difficulties of 100 women teachers, 52 women students not teachers, and 25 men teachers through the use of the Thurstone Personality Schedule and the Otis S-A test of mental ability. A detailed study of the Thurstone scores and the personal data sheets especially constructed for this study shows that women teachers were less well adjusted than either men or women who were not teachers. Rinsland (48) reported the results of a study of a test for measuring the teacher's knowledge of the conduct and personality of children. From an examination of the scores of 252 teachers from nine of the better schools of three southwestern states, he concluded that the test has high reliability.

Analysis of Teaching Ability

Rostker (49) reported one of the most elaborate statistical studies of this period. Using changes in pupils (measured by a number of tests) as his criterion, he studied the validity and reliability of a number of measures of quality commonly associated with teaching efficiency. For traits as thus measured he concluded:

1. The intelligence of the teacher, as measured by the tests employed, is more closely related to teaching ability than any other factor considered in this study. This remains so even when intelligence is considered in combination with other teacher traits.
2. The social attitudes of teachers instructing in the social studies is an important factor in teaching ability, as defined in this study.
3. Attitude towards teaching is significantly associated with teaching ability as used in this study.
4. Knowledge of subjectmatter bears no great relationship to teaching ability; but if results from tests of noninformational objectives are included there appears to be a significant association with teaching ability.
5. Knowledge of mental hygiene and ability to diagnose and remedy pupil mental maladjustment, as determined from the test used, bears a highly significant relationship to teaching ability.

6. Personality, as defined by the measures used in this study, shows no significant relationship to teaching ability.
7. The ability of the teacher to sense and correct disciplinary problems does not show a significant relationship to teaching ability as measured in this study.
8. The relationship between scores on the three supervisory rating scales used in this study and the criteria of teaching ability is low and statistically insignificant.
9. The highest multiple correlation (.85) was found between a combination of fourteen teacher tests, and a criterion based upon adjusted pupil scores.
10. A multiple-correlation of .67 was found between a combination of scores on teacher's intelligence and performance upon an achievement test, with a criterion based upon adjusted pupil scores.

Conclusions

The survey of researches relating to the measurement of teaching ability seems to warrant the following conclusions: (a) interest in the objective measurement of teaching seems apparent—there are many excellent papers of a descriptive sort not summarized here; (b) the results in this area are far from satisfactory, owing to many factors such as inadequacy of the criteria employed in the validation of instruments in this field, the absence of any validated theory of the organization of human ability, the fragmentary character of the instruments available, and the like; (c) there is need for more comprehensive measures of teaching ability representing the three basically different approaches to such measurement, namely, measures of qualities commonly associated with teaching efficiency, measures of teacher performance, and measures of changes in pupils. With such instruments available, they might then be validated through long-time studies providing comparable data on a number of measures.

CHAPTER III

Recruitment for Teacher Training and Prediction of Teaching Success¹

A. S. BARR

Interest in Selection and Quotas

PAPERS on the importance of the pretraining selection, guidance, and recruitment of teachers continue to appear in print in large numbers attesting to the widespread interest in this subject. Steiner and Von Haden (91) presented a recent summary of materials relating to this area published within the last five years, listing 133 articles and monographs.

More or less typical of the good descriptive articles in this field, emphasizing the importance of the selection, guidance, and recruitment of teachers, are those by Smith (90), Kotschnig (68), and Lazenby (71). Smith suggested limiting the number of enrollees on the basis of average normal turnover according to divisional levels and subjectmatter fields. Kotschnig emphasized the necessity for impartiality in the establishment of quotas and asserted that limitations so employed should relieve overcrowding and provide a better product. Smith and Kotschnig both emphasized the importance of quality as opposed to quantity in teacher training. Lazenby stressed the value of setting up requirements for admission to the junior and senior years of training based upon an objective type of measurement. In support of this contention, Lazenby cited the success which the Milwaukee public schools have had in setting up standards of selection and in defending these against a variety of pressures. A further summary of recent trends in the selection of teachers was made by Archer (51).

Plans for Selection

Typical of plans for the selection of teachers are those by Hertzberg and Mayer (63), Lessenger and others (72), White (99), and Beeley (52). Hertzberg and Mayer reported upon the progress in the selection of teachers in New York State; Lessenger and others described the plan in operation in Wayne University, Detroit; White discussed the plan employed in the selection of prospective teachers in the Paterson, New Jersey, State Teachers College; and Beeley described a clinical technic employed at the University of Utah. After the available data are assembled relative to health, intelligence, and grades, the Thurstone Personality Schedule and the Bell Adjustment Inventories are given and the results discussed by a committee composed of the dean of the School of Education, the physicians, a clinical psychologist, and the director of teacher training. Students are approved categorically, or conditionally, or denied admission.

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 268.

Guidance in Teacher Training

The idea has grown in recent years that much can be done to improve the quality of those seeking to become teachers through guidance. Northway (81) suggested that secondary-school principals, teachers, and guidance workers should pay more attention to the interpretation of the teaching profession to qualified high-school students. Smith (90) stated that the responsibility for the quality of students entering the teaching profession rests jointly upon the high school and the training institutions. Johnson and Morris (66) believed that instead of attempting a predictive type of personality measurement before admission, it would be more practical to use this as a supplement to the student's academic record after he has entered college. Rhodes (84) called attention to the advantage of a probationary period of at least one year during which students are carefully studied and wisely directed. Kotschnig (68) and Lazenby (71) emphasized the need for continuous guidance during the training period. The systematic study of the individual's potentialities and growth throughout the training period would result in the elimination of many persons unfitted for teaching. Bright (54) surveyed the literature relative to the place of self-analysis, self-evaluation, and self-improvement in teacher training and described the Indiana State Teachers College blank, "Helps for Developing Personality and Teaching Qualities." Downs (58) supplied a review of recent trends in personnel practices in teachers colleges.

Studies of Qualities Essential to Success in Teaching

Many lists of the qualities thought essential to success in teaching have been offered by workers in this field based upon personal experience and systematic and incidental observation. During recent years, considerable effort has been expended upon the better definition, objective measurement, and validation of the many qualities considered essential to teaching efficiency. Among the papers and researches in this field, many have related to the personal and emotional factors essential to success in teaching. Papers by Meek (76), Ryan (87), Ross (86), O'Brien (82), and Rivlin (85) are more or less typical of this particular emphasis. Meek stressed the importance of selecting teachers who are equipped to use the experiences in the classroom as an opportunity for influencing the personality development of children. Ryan, after saying that teacher selection and training are the most important problems facing modern education, declared that, if the schools are to concern themselves in any effective way at all with all-round individual and community experience on the scale now desired by educators, they will have to receive help from other agencies in the community. Ross discussed the function of the classroom teacher in directing mental growth. O'Brien emphasized the importance of the teacher's personality in influencing the lives of children; Rivlin did not know which traits were important but expressed the desirability of selecting teachers who have the personalities required in teaching.

Among the other qualities considered in relation to teaching efficiency are intelligence, scholarship, skill in expression, judgment, attitudes of various sorts, and adaptability. Major (74) reported the results of a study of the relationship between percentile rank on the Ohio State University psychological test and teaching efficiency as judged by the rating of professors at Denison University. A correlation of .14 led the author to question whether the Ohio test measures the type of intelligence needed in teaching and whether our present measurements of teaching ability are adequate. Stuit (94), using data from the teacher-placement bureau of the University of Nebraska, compared the scholastic grades of the 100 teachers rated by superintendents as most successful and the 100 teachers rated as least successful and found the former to be higher. Of the successful teachers, only 11 percent had grades below 80, and 19 percent were above 90; of the inferior group, one-third were below 80, and 13 percent above 90. The correlation between teaching and scholastic success was .31. Daldy (56) reported a study of the adaptability of 31 prospective teachers of domestic science. The teachers were given intelligence tests, graded on teaching proficiency, and classified as to whether well or ill adapted to new situations. Teachers who experienced difficulty in adaptation showed inability to express themselves definitely, to react quickly to changes in environment, to make contact with their pupils, or to interest them and to concentrate. Over half the group was rated as ill adapted. Garnett (59) reported a study of the skills in English composition of teachers college freshmen from which he concluded that only a small number of students are adequately prepared for teaching the basic skills in written English.

Hobson (64) found in a study of the teacher's knowledge of mental hygiene that the lacks are sufficiently great and general to require a course in mental hygiene of all prospective teachers. Ram (83) reported a study of professional judgment as measured by the Maury Professional Test for teachers, in which he studied the factors that influence judgment—particularly academic qualifications, professional information, age, and sex. He concluded that women possess better judgment in teaching and that teaching experience influences judgment favorably. Tostlebe (98), basing his conclusions upon a questionnaire directed to 66 specialists in education and 64 county superintendents from which he had 40 returns each, offered a list of desirable qualities in rural school teachers. The list includes such items as methods of making the assignment, methods of directing study, provision for individual differences, motivating technics, and the like. Young (100) studied conditions affecting the teaching efficiency of 1,521 Texas high-school teachers. He concluded that teaching efficiency is influenced by a number of factors such as training and experience but that other qualities, less tangible and most difficult to measure, are essential. For additional studies the reader is referred to the preceding chapter.

Factors Predictive of Teaching Success

A number of statistical studies of the predictive value of measures of qualities thought to be associated with teaching success has been made. Bent (53) reported the results of a study of the relationship between qualifying examinations, student teaching, and various other factors. The correlations between the conditioning factors and the criteria were not considered high enough to predict individual performance. The highest correlations were found between honor-point ratios and hours of credit where the coefficients of correlations were .45 and .46, respectively. Stump (96) gave the Morris Trait Index L and the George Washington Teaching Aptitude Test to 37 sophomores and 61 freshmen at Keuka College and secured an intercorrelation of .35. The results of these tests were not checked against an outside criterion of teaching efficiency. Lawton (70), in a study of factors useful in choosing candidates for the teaching profession, reported coefficients of correlations of .45 to .48 between teaching grades and academic-examination grades. Number of college activities gave correlations with the general teaching mark of .23 to .30. Interview and tutors' ratings of fitness gave correlations from .51 to .80. A combination of interview ratings and examination marks gave correlations of .70 to .82 with teaching grades. Greene and Staton (62), in predicting the value of various tests of emotionality and adjustment in a guidance program, selected as subjects 100 students enrolled in the College of Education at the University of Georgia. Using ratings on the George Washington University Teaching Aptitude Test, the Coxe-Orleans Prognosis Test of Teaching Ability, the Morris Trait Index L, school marks, the Ohio State Intelligence Test, Wrenn's Study Habits Inventory, and Soin's Socio-Economic Status Inventory as criterion scores, they studied the relationship of these measures with the Bernreuter Inventory, the Bell Inventory, and the Willoughby E. M. Scale. Correlations ranging all the way from $-.44$ to $+.45$ are reported.

Sandiford and others (88) reported the results of two studies carried on at the University of Toronto to discover criteria for the selection of teachers. In the fall of 1934, entering students were given a number of intelligence, achievement, and personality tests. Each student was interviewed and rated in various ways and a detailed questionnaire was filled out. From the data collected, the author reached the following conclusions:

1. Ability of students in teaching is not closely related to intelligence above that necessary for graduation.
2. Ability of students in teaching is not closely related to achievement in special subjects. Neither the comprehensive tests nor the specialists' examinations proved to be of value in predicting teaching ability. It must not be forgotten, however, that while the correlations were all low, they were also positive, showing that the good student is slightly more apt to succeed as a teacher than the poor student.
3. Ability in practice teaching is not measured by personality tests. In fact, considerable doubt exists as to what, if anything, these tests do measure.
4. The teaching averages obtained in the first term are only a fair index of the final teaching average.

5. Improvement during the period of training is not closely related to intelligence as measured by group tests.

6. If a student has a natural aptitude for teaching, it shows up early.

7. Certain items of information, as determined by a questionnaire, appear to be of value in selecting successful teachers. These items have not as yet been standardized but may be used as indications of the value of certain information in selecting teachers.

8. Ratings of students based on interviews of short duration, even when conducted by a number of raters, are not sufficiently reliable to be used for prognosis. There is close agreement between the opinions of different raters, but even average ratings do not agree closely with critic teachers' marks.

9. Experienced instructors are unable to segregate effectively those who will prove successful teachers from those who will not.

10. It is easier to select the better students than it is to eliminate the poorer ones.

11. The marks of critic teachers are subject to the variance of individual subjective evaluations.

The second study by these same authors undertook to discover the traits or capacities essential to success in teaching by an examination of the records of students who had graduated from the college during the period from 1921 to 1930. From the data collected the author concluded as follows:

1. Teaching success has low correlation with marks obtained in Ontario College of Education. Every correlation with teaching success calculated was below .20, except that for practice teaching, which was .38.

2. Practice teaching marks have some value in predicting success or failure in the field. Of the 28 teaching failures for whom recent practice teaching marks were available, eight had practice teaching marks below passing, and six had practice teaching marks slightly above. Only one of the ten students receiving practice teaching marks below passing in 1925-26 became an average teacher; none was better than average. Three of the twenty students receiving marks just above passing became average teachers; five were better than average.

3. The success of practice teaching marks in predicting failure, although substantial, was far from complete. Half of the failures discovered had practice teaching marks above passing. The reason for this lies in the method of conducting practice teaching then in use. It is altogether likely that recent attempts to have practice teaching take place under classroom conditions which are more nearly normal will increase prognostic value of practice teaching marks.

4. Students rejected in their first attempt to obtain teaching certificates are not likely to become successful teachers. Of the 21 rejected students studied, only five did obtain certificates later. Of the remaining 16, three did not teach in secondary schools; of the 13 who did, eight were failures or on the border line between success and failure, and five became average teachers only.

All in all, the results of research in this area to date have been disappointing. This may be due to a number of facts and conditions. Save for Sandiford's study (37), none of the reports included in this chapter have employed a validated criterion of teaching ability. Even in the case of the latter, some will question the adequacy of supervisory rating as an ultimate criterion, preferring to employ some measure of pupil growth and achievement for this purpose. The unsatisfactory results are doubtless due, in part, to the inadequacy of the instruments of measurement employed. There are great vocabulary differences in the qualities or aspects of teaching that one purports to measure. Possibly the low correlations are due,

too, in part to the small contribution to the total of teaching ability made by each of the several aspects studied. In general, as the results from several measures are pooled, the coefficients of correlation increase in size.

Needed Research

It is probably unnecessary to restate what one reads so frequently—that the teacher is an important factor in the learning-teaching situation. Contrary to what some people seem to think, the teacher brings her whole self to teaching. By the time the prospective teacher has attained an age of eighteen or twenty, she has already acquired many of the qualities that will determine her success as a teacher, particularly the personal, social, and emotional factors that are so important in teaching. Partly through selection, partly through guidance, and partly through training can the efficiency of those entering the profession be improved. In the field of recruitment it would seem: (a) that a more adequate listing of the qualities considered essential to teaching efficiency is needed, (b) that the several qualities should be as accurately defined as seems feasible under the circumstances surrounding efforts in this field, (c) that each instrument should be validated against the quality it purports to measure and teaching success, (d) that a more adequate criterion of teaching efficiency needs to be developed, and (e) that new conceptions of the organization and functioning of human abilities may have to be attained.

Summary of Trend and Findings

An examination of the literature on this subject would seem to warrant the following conclusions:

1. There is widespread interest in the selection, guidance, and recruitment of teachers. Many institutions have already put into effect plans for this purpose.
2. There is a tendency to use more objective means in the selection, guidance, and recruitment of teachers.
3. There is need for more objective studies of the validity and reliability of the various measures considered to have predictive value in the selection of prospective teachers in terms of more adequate criteria of teaching efficiency.
4. The results to date are, on the whole, disappointing as far as any scientific validation of pretraining selection, guidance, and recruitment practices are concerned.
5. Much more and much better research is needed in this field, particularly long-time studies and studies wherein the validity and reliability of proposed criteria may be studied under comparable conditions.

CHAPTER IV

The Preparation of Teachers¹

W. E. PEIK

THIS REVIEW presents an analysis of 155 studies which employed research procedures. Omitted this time are all unpublished graduate theses, many of which are listed under various headings in the annual United States Office of Education *Bibliography of Research Studies in Education* (159, 160).

Major research activities on the preparation of teachers during the three-year period were the teacher personnel study of the Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York (181) and the investigations of the subjectmatter preparation of secondary teachers by a Committee of the North Central Association (172).

Classification of Studies

Bibliographies, general and specialized—Of the 155 studies which were selected for classification and review, 30 presented valuable bibliographies in broad or specific areas of teacher preparation. Some of them are annotated (102, 106, 107, 115, 116, 129, 132, 133, 136, 150, 153, 157, 159, 160, 163, 166, 169, 180, 196, 201, 205, 209, 210, 219, 220, 224, 237, 242, 249, 251).

Preparation in general—Of the studies here reviewed many dealt with curriculum problems as a whole, its pattern, the amount of preparation, general practices and policies, and the like, as follows: general survey studies (145, 181); general preparation (various phases): (102, 105, 118, 125, 145, 147, 150, 163, 172, 180, 181, 184, 194, 219, 220, 234, 235, 256); and studies concerned with practices and policies (111, 112, 126, 130, 140, 175, 176, 179, 191, 200, 230, 246).

General education (background)—The general educational background of the teacher was emphasized considerably in the following studies: (125, 150, 162, 167, 168, 182, 194); as needs in: (150, 161, 162, 167, 168, 173, 190, 194, 248, 253); and as extracurriculum activities: (121, 122, 123).

Specific teaching fields or levels—A large proportion of the investigations were concerned with one aspect or another of educational status or preparation in teaching, teaching services, or specific fields or teaching levels: science (106, 134, 178, 210, 222, 251); library (176, 215); foreign language (131, 156); mathematics (119, 120, 224, 233, 243, 244); social studies (108, 127, 165, 182); English (104, 154, 166, 215, 226, 248); music (129, 137, 196); rural education (155, 245); physical education (144, 169, 211, 228, 232, 246, 249); adult education (140); home economics education (149, 231); administration (151, 158, 206, 221); speech (166, 226, 248); higher education (141, 170, 186, 216, 225);

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 270.

secondary education (118, 142, 161, 162, 167, 168, 172, 189, 225, 227, 252, 254); elementary education (109, 157, 158, 189, 236, 243, 244, 250); special classes (200, 250); guidance (133, 174); community relationships (146, 176); and supervision (135, 158, 173).

Concerned somewhat more broadly with the matter of the general problem of specialization for teaching fields or for teaching levels were at least seven studies (113, 114, 142, 162, 167, 172, 183). Four investigations were concerned with the whole problem of the amount of preparation (105, 172, 185, 256). Areas of specialization for teaching combinations are covered in Chapter IX of this *Review*.

Professional Courses in Education

A large number of studies, some of them of considerable scope, continue to focus attention upon student teaching, the laboratory school, and closely related problems: (101, 103, 116, 127, 134, 136, 152, 154, 171, 173, 176, 183, 185, 193, 199, 204, 205, 208, 209, 228, 229, 237, 238, 247). Dealing more particularly with the correlation of theory courses in education with practice are four others: (107, 128, 153, 182).

Other technical courses in education and education content as a whole have been studied many times more specifically in (181, 183, 187, 188, 189, 197, 198, 201, 202, 203, 213, 214, 216, 227, 256). Another group of investigations treats more broadly the topic of professional education (132, 135, 169, 190, 200, 212, 233, 236). Only one of these is primarily concerned with historical aspects of teacher education (235) and another may also be better classified as comparative education (236).

There is a substantial interest in the development of graduate work for teachers, as represented by nine studies (110, 138, 139, 148, 168, 176, 182, 187, 211).

Guidance

The problems of guidance and student services for personal development and educational counselling on the curriculum were considered in 24 investigations (113, 114, 132, 133, 137, 143, 152, 164, 166, 169, 174, 192, 195, 198, 199, 204, 217, 231, 239, 240, 242, 245, 246, 248). These show a growing interest. Of these studies (32, 132, 144, 164, 166, 199, 240, 248, 249) are concerned with specific traits, qualities, or characteristics of teachers; others (114, 164, 199, 217, 240, 242, 248) are also interested in the development or use of tests and examination procedures in this area. One of them (246) surveys the health services of teachers colleges, and four include special attention to remedial procedures (137, 166, 198, 248).

Research

Research summarizations or the systematic statement of problems for research have had substantial recognition as follows: (147, 177, 218, 219, 220, 234, 251, 254). Evaluation studies involving the quality or effectiveness of teacher preparation in aspects of teacher education are also repre-

sented (101, 105, 114, 125, 167, 194, 195), but they are not as numerous as they should be.

Miscellaneous

Other areas included in the literature of research are the preparation of Negro teachers (130, 155), teacher preparation institutions as such (115, 176, 179, 181, 223, 238), faculty personnel (110, 117, 141, 170, 176, 181, 186, 191, 230), independent study (111), curriculum revision (127, 146, 147, 153, 157, 171, 184, 234), administration (117, 179, 181, 191, 208, 229, 230, 246), and deans (117).

Methods Used in the Investigations

A classification of the procedures used in the research is difficult because some studies use many, others only one. Where several are used, some may be employed very slightly. Only the major technics of each investigation have been tabulated.

Method	Frequency	Method	Frequency
Objective data based on questionnaire or checklist..	44	Students' records analysis..	6
Summary, review, or annotation of literature.....	26	Analyses of legal documents and records.....	5
Opinion of experts or competent groups.....	19	Report by letter.....	4
Bulletin analysis.....	16	Historical sources.....	4
Miscellaneous methods.....	17	Experimentation.....	4
Use of tests and examinations	15	Text analysis.....	4
Interview.....	8	Not clearly indicated.....	4
		Conference.....	3
		Case study.....	1

Forty-two of the studies were limited to teachers colleges and normal schools only, forty-nine studied the problems with reference to more than one type of institution, while twenty were restricted to liberal arts colleges or universities, or both.

Typical Conclusions and Recommendations

An analysis was made of the general nature of the conclusions and of the statements of implications of each study presented. Samples are given below in order to show the trends of interest as well as of findings and conclusions.

Practices and policies—A review of the literature on the integration, coordination, correlation, and fusion of theory and practice work in teachers colleges leads to the conclusion that the problem is by no means settled (107).

The most frequently reported type of adapting teacher-training programs to prospective superior teachers is independent study (111).

About 69 percent of seniors in a school of education selected one or more freshman courses, which was one-sixth of the senior load. The quality of work was slightly superior to their freshman work (112).

Leaders in professional education of teachers favor highly the separate school of education in a university rather than its absorption by the university as a whole (179).

The curriculum for elementary teachers should be extended to cover a fourth year (181).

Financial support of teachers colleges must be increased (181).

Of 104 institutions, all but one require educational psychology and practice teaching; about four-fifths require general methods, principles, or philosophy of education and special methods or materials in a teaching field. Two-fifths require introduction to education and history of education respectively. Other education courses are not the same in even two-fifths of the institutions (183).

The five courses required most frequently in the program of 38 universities for certification as elementary teachers are: student teaching, 23; educational psychology, 21; tests and measurements, 15; principles of teaching in elementary schools, 15; and introduction to education, 12 (189).

Very significant changes have been proposed to educate teachers broadly and specifically (161).

There is at present too little agreement on what should constitute the introductory course in education (214).

Junior colleges as a rule do not state their major purpose in offering teacher-training programs (225).

Fifty-three percent of students spent less than \$200 for room, board, and school fees at one teachers college. The median was \$182.55. Only 8 percent spent more than \$300 (223).

In Germany elementary teachers are drawn from a highly selected group in respect to intellectual ability, academic training, and personal characteristics related to teaching success (236).

Trends in secondary education which have implications for teacher education are: more explicit social functionalism, more socially comprehensive curriculums, individualization, integration, emphasis on higher mental processes, and activism (252).

The recommendations of the committee after a statewide survey are: five years of preparation divided into two years of broad cultural education, one year of apprentice teaching, two years at college devoted to (a) one-fourth time in general fields and (b) three-fourths time in special selected fields (256).

The list of 200 magazines most frequently found in 143 teachers college libraries begins with these: *National Geographic*, 143; *Harpers Magazine*, 140; *Atlantic Monthly*, 139; *Literary Digest*, 139; *Current History*, 138; *School and Society*, 137; etc. (176).

In 1930, 75 percent of Negro one-room teachers had not gone beyond high school. In 1935 the percent had dropped to 46 (155).

About one-fourth of the states do not require special preparation for teachers of handicapped children (250).

Achievement—It is quite clear that there is very material variation in general mental abilities among the different departmental groups of students in the college of education (114).

"In so far as those expecting to teach are concerned, the results of the Pennsylvania examinations are disappointing. . . . The majority of the group are most at home in the lower half of total college distributions; they exhibit inferiority in contrast with the non-teachers in nearly every department of study; and they show up badly when compared in the same tests with students four years below them who represent the educational problems with which they must be prepared to deal. The ability and attainment of those selected and prepared in special centers for that purpose are consistently and conspicuously below the level of the group as a whole" (194).

The grade points for the high and low 50 percent groups on the placement test

scores were 2.56 and 1.76 respectively. It would be economical to encourage only those in upper percent groups to undertake degree curriculums (217).

The non-majors in physical education were found to be better informed than the majors in those sections of the test relating to current activities, fine arts, literature, history, and civics and less informed in science, education, and sports (144).

Innovations—Teachers should be prepared to understand the problems of family life (140).

Place all college instruction on the basis of actual needs. Instruction in all departments should be functionalized (150).

The impact of economic and political stress is apparent in the stated aims of new trends and experiments in higher education having implications for teacher education (150).

Instructors and students agree that the plan of integrating professional courses secured better attitudes and more interest, though it was more difficult, than unintegrated separate courses (213).

Extracurriculum—Sixty percent or more of 3,939 students in teachers colleges believe that extracurriculum activities were more valuable than curriculum activities—in dramatics, 60; education, 60; English, 62; music, 77; social studies, 61; debate, 69; band, 61; newspaper, 67; Y.M.C.A., 62; church, 67; and football, 73 (121).

About three-fourths of high-school teachers participate in extracurriculum activities (122).

The extracurriculum activities for which a large majority of principals believe teachers colleges should provide courses and practice are student councils, clubs, forensics, publications, religious activities, social activities, music, and class activities (122).

The scope of practice teaching should be widened to include activity membership (133).

Graduate work—In selected teachers colleges offering graduate work, the average number of Ph.D.'s on the faculty was about 30 percent, the average number of courses taught ranged from 10.4 to 15.5, and a large percent of teaching loads exceeded 16 hours (139).

The primary demand for graduate work in teachers colleges is from teachers in service during the summer session (139).

The thesis is almost universally required (138).

No credit is allowed for correspondence work (138).

The requirements of some of the 14 universities for a doctor of education degree are identical with the requirements of others for the doctor of philosophy with specialization in education (187).

Of 40 representative large universities, 12 have established the master of education degree (187).

Thirty of the 51 institutions with physical education departments which were canvassed offered graduate courses (211).

Student teaching—College instructors in subjectmatter departments in teachers colleges and normal schools make little or no contact with the training school faculty (128).

It is evident from training teachers' judgment that managing a project or activity is of major importance in student teaching, that more attention be given to principles of remedial work (101).

Two-thirds of student teachers in an institution continually showed no capacity to apply principles and need more guidance. Those who cannot learn to do so should not enter teaching (101).

It is evident that in both state departments and institutions there is a marked trend to set forth for secondary teachers some requirements beyond the traditional four years, which often includes internships or practice teaching (185).

Student teachers have their greatest difficulty in pupil relationships; lesson planning; adapting instruction to pupil interests, needs, and abilities; leading class discussion to proper conclusions; etc. (205).

The median number of hours of actual student teaching in institutions without campus school, with campus school only, and with both was 77, 72, and 90, respectively, and the median costs per student were \$79, \$177.25, and \$198.50, respectively (208).

The quite general need for supplementary training in reading and English was indicated (154).

The majority of alumni believed they did not have enough student teaching (228).

The most common practice is for the university supervisor to visit the science practice teacher in cooperating practice schools two or three times per term. A few visited them each week (134).

College teaching—"The majority of the subjectmatter professors with whom I corresponded were sympathetic toward education and willing to play the game with educationists but quite unwilling to turn any appreciable amount of responsibility to the educationist . . . there is a general fear that education will encroach upon college teaching" (141).

Although over three-fourths of the respondents claimed to recognize college teacher training as the primary function of the graduate school, very few gave any indication that it influenced their program (110).

Faculty personnel—Outside of the supervision of discipline there is no general agreement as to what the duties of the dean of the college in a teachers college should be. About 60 percent of the teachers colleges studied have deans (117).

Faculty training in teachers colleges should be upgraded in scholarship (181).

From 1927 to 1937 the percent of doctor's degrees held by the faculties of 152 teachers colleges increased from 8.5 percent to 24 percent and percents of bachelor's degrees decreased from 32 percent to 7.5 percent (176).

Sixty-nine percent of 4,667 college teachers (members of A.A.U.P.) replying to a questionnaire had no high-school teaching experience (186).

Of the 22,544 teachers of North Central institutions for whom data were obtained, 9.4 percent were in education. It was the largest professional group, the next being medicine with 6.5 percent (170).

Guidance and personnel—Diagnostic procedures in the supervision of student teaching is as appropriate and profitable as in any other educational activity (151).

The present data indicate that the teaching aptitude tests do not adequately take into account the idiosyncrasies of personality commonly believed to be related to success in teaching (164).

Forty-eight percent were rated poor in articulation (166). Few students were effective in reading aloud (166).

Nonacademic records are poorly organized as a rule (192).

The health-service program is most discouraging in the typical college (192).

Colleges which train teachers must select them and then give the candidate a genuine trial under school conditions (194).

There is need for more adequate precollege guidance of students planning to teach (239).

A greater effort should be made to assist students with their financial problems (239).

The majority (283 students) had had little previous training in speech or experience in speaking. The majority ranked low in ability in speechmaking (248).

Special fields—The science requirements for elementary teachers should be extended, including a general science course at the freshman level and a professional course in the teaching of elementary science (106).

"The teachers colleges and conservatories do not require as much applied music as do the state universities and teachers colleges" (129).

There is an encouraging trend toward systematized preparation of supervisors through a sequence of courses pertaining to supervision and leading to a certificate or a degree (135).

Of the 166 science sequences offered to elementary teachers, 84 percent were biological in nature (157).

It has been possible for students to graduate from teacher-training institutions without studying any science (157).

There are now 21 states in which special certification of principalships is authorized (158).

A very high percent of teachers in science and social studies including history had little or no training in one or more branches of their general fields (142).

Probably less than 20 percent of those studied except in certain special subject fields taught only in fields of major college preparation (142).

On the ten lists of "Sixty Educational Books" published between 1926 and 1936, 51 percent provide learning activities most often in the form of exercises, problems, questions, and topics (197).

A majority of states, 29, require certification for superintendents. Almost four-fifths of those taking graduate majors took them in either education or in educational administration (206).

Ninety-two percent of those participating in the study believed that a general course in applied mathematics would be valuable to prospective teachers of mathematics (224).

The average number of courses completed by 1,001 beginning teachers in the North Central Association areas was six. The six most frequently mentioned of 52 listed courses were practice teaching and observation, 88 percent; educational psychology, 80 percent; special methods (academic), 65 percent; history of education, 37 percent; general psychology, 34 percent; tests and measurements, 32 percent (227).

There is evidence to show that college freshmen cannot compute with a fair degree of accuracy and speed. They know little of the meanings and concepts of *arithmetic* (244).

The most important (highest quartile interval) success factors which institutions preparing *rural* teachers should emphasize were found to be: the assignment, individual differences, the study period, mastery of fundamentals, the unit method, the teacher herself, and relations with the rural community. The third quartile factors were objectives, questioning, lesson planning, individual differences, proper use of materials, and teachers' relationships to superintendent and schoolboard (245).

Fifty-seven percent of 700 recently certified *non-mathematics* teachers trained in Pennsylvania had no mathematics on the college level (120).

A substantial proportion of *science* teachers are inadequately prepared to teach science (210).

There is an offering in higher education in the summer session of 1938 in no less than 25 universities (216).

Among 500 curriculum investigations in higher education, the most common implication for science teaching is to meet additions to curriculum made imperative by changing life and changing knowledge (178).

Most significant points of progress in the education of home economics teachers are selection, general education, and enrichment of experience (149).

Evaluation—Seventy-eight percent of teachers set a high value on broad introductory courses (118).

There should probably be greater emphasis in the institution studied on principles dealing with the nature of motivation, interest, and purposes underlying pupil activity, child growth or maturation, and mental hygiene as related to learning (101).

In our efforts to supply quantity we have sacrificed quality (145).

The six most frequently mentioned needs of preparation by student teachers were subjectmatter mastery, how to teach children—not subjects, constructing lesson plans, knowing content of all grades, how to interest pupils, testing achievement (173).

The need for separate courses in public and professional relations is debatable; the need for systematic training experience in these areas is inescapable (175).

Two urgent needs are better selection and an enrichment of the program of student teaching (193).

Some manifest deficiencies of preparation expressed repeatedly in the opinions of

all sorts of teachers are lack of a broad general education, lack of contact with life, and lack of professional training (167).

Colleges and universities not under public control have become more conscious of the part they can play in the education of teachers (235).

Ninety-nine percent favored a broad general education in various academic fields (167).

More and better curriculum research, experimentation, and evaluation are needed in teacher education (219).

Research—Active organized research in teacher preparation must constantly seek to improve the education of all people (177).

The education of teachers is clearly one of the fields in which a minimum of research has been undertaken, but to which, in spite of obvious difficulties much more attention should be given (147).

The number of theses listed in this bibliography for the field of teacher education and teacher status for 1936-37 are 25 doctor's and 135 master's, as compared with 15 doctor's and 110 master's for 1935-36 (159).

There is need for more experimentation on teacher preparation, for more evaluation of innovations and of established practices (220).

Status quo studies tend to be repetitive in many of their findings (220).

It is probable that every delegate to the Bennington conference felt that this listing of problems helped to clarify his understanding of what are to be the major points of attack in this study (234).

The committee has brought together 17 dominant issues on the training of science teachers (251).

Comments, Conclusions, and Implications

Important areas of interest needing a great deal more of research are graduate work; the personal, social-civic, and professional needs of teachers; the development and evaluation of orientation or survey courses as constituents of teacher-preparing programs, educational guidance, and personality development. The problem of whether the technical professional courses in education need much more intensive treatment for the improvement of teaching practice or whether they should be limited awaits basic investigation. The weakest areas of which the profession appears to be quite conscious are teacher selection, educational guidance, and the general education of the teacher. All evidence points to the need for better scholarship in the profession and for a lengthened period of preparation for every type of position. The trend is definitely away from department majors and minors to broad field majors. There is a growing interest in the internship. Coming over the horizon now quite definitely is our increased attention to higher education and professional preparation for college teaching. The teacher's role in social progress and in the preservation of democracy is much discussed but there is little research on it which ties up closely with problems of curriculum reorganization.

CHAPTER V

Teacher Selection and Placement¹

CECIL W. SCOTT

INVESTIGATIONS of the last three years have been confined almost entirely to practice and opinion surveys, often combined, and only occasionally containing evaluative features. In general, comparable studies have produced similar results. Since measurement and prediction of teaching ability are so closely related to selection and placement, important advances in the latter field apparently must await appreciable gains in the former.

Responsibility for Selection

The National Education Association (270) concluded that school superintendents in all states have much authority for appointment of teachers, and Coulbourn (262) recommended as a general principle that superintendents be responsible for teacher selection. Fifteen hundred sample rules selected from the printed schoolboard rulebooks of 40 cities over 100,000 population were analyzed by the National Education Association for prescriptions related to employment. Coulbourn's study surveyed teacher selection practices in the 37 largest cities of the United States and evaluated them in the light of criteria and proposed standards. It was based on (a) data obtained from the cities through printed materials, correspondence, and visitation; (b) interviews with successful and unsuccessful teaching candidates; and (c) the literature of the field.

Technics of Selection and Placement

Establishment of minimum qualifications for all positions was recommended by Coulbourn (262). Allman (257), Hanson and Umstattd (265), and Barnes (259) reported that superintendents prefer institutional placement bureaus to other sources of teaching candidates. Snarr (273) reported that, of 187 elementary teachers new to their positions in 27 southwestern Minnesota counties in 1935-36, 45 percent secured their positions through commercial agencies, 44 percent through institutional agencies, and 11 percent through personal effort. Corresponding percents for 208 similar teachers of 1936-37 as reported by Snarr (274) were 56, 34, and 10, respectively.

All of the studies just cited, except Coulbourn's, relied chiefly or altogether on questionnaire data. Two hundred and ninety superintendents in 12 widely distributed states furnished Allman (257) information concerning selection practices and the opinions and standards used in evaluating teaching candidates. Apparently on the basis of 314 returns from one questionnaire sent to Minnesota superintendents, Hanson and Umstattd (265, 266, 276) prepared three separate and distinct reports. Data relative to placement efforts of teacher-training institutions, efforts of candidates to

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 277.

secure positions, and means of improving the services of training institutions were supplied Barnes (259) by 307 superintendents listed in the *Michigan Education Directory, 1935-36*. Snarr's investigations (273, 274) also concentrated attention on placement problems.

In a study of factors influencing selection in 10 Florida cities which employed 281 of 1,289 white applicants in 1936-37, Stack (275) found that superintendents relied almost wholly on unsolicited applications. Formal applications and interviews with superintendents were the main sources of data used by Stack. Coulbourn (262) recommended that wherever possible selecting agencies should seek teaching candidates, and Barnes (259) concluded that a candidate should apply only for known vacancies.

According to Allman (257), superintendents customarily select applicants for personal interviews through examination of credentials and letters of application. Coulbourn (262) recommended that candidates be interviewed and that they be ranked on the basis of all evaluations made. Only 13 of 40 large cities studied by the National Education Association (270) make appointments from eligibility lists.

Endicott (263) found that directors of institutional placement bureaus customarily interview registrants when credentials are filed and that staff members outside of schools and departments of education supply reports on registrants. Upon request of reliable agencies or of candidates, institutional bureaus send credentials to commercial agencies. Endicott's investigation was concerned with pretraining selection, advisement, and placement in schools and colleges of education in larger universities and was based on data obtained from a literature survey, from questionnaires representing 60 institutions, and from visits to 15 institutions.

A desire on the part of Minnesota superintendents for institutional placement bureaus to maintain preferred lists of their alumni, based principally on reports from school superintendents, was revealed by Hanson and Umstattd (265). As reported by Endicott (263), the typical means used by institutional placement bureaus to learn of possible vacancies is the mailed inquiry blank. Barnes (259) recommended that training institutions advertise their candidates in March or February of each year. Provision of follow-up services was found by Endicott (263) to be rare and was recommended by this investigator, by Barnes (259), and by Knight (268). Various phases of problems connected with the placement of vocational agriculture teachers were studied by Knight, whose data were derived mainly from questionnaires returned by 89 percent of all state supervisors, 85.4 percent of all teacher trainers, and 278 superintendents of school systems offering vocational agriculture located in five midwestern states.

Allman (257) and Hanson and Umstattd (265) pointed out the need for placement bureaus to keep more complete records of registrants and the latter suggested that services be speeded up. Securing reliable and impartial recommendations for registrants was recognized as a problem by Endicott (263), and Allman (257) stated that superintendents wish honest, frank reports concerning candidates.

Fisher (264) used the questionnaire to collect data from 87 colleges, 368 teachers, and 647 school superintendents, relative to specific knowledges deemed necessary for intelligent self-direction by teachers in the process of securing employment. Forty-five basic knowledges were identified. Fisher showed that essential information is not being satisfactorily provided but offered no suggestions concerning the specific nature of the basic knowledges or how to provide them.

Selection and Appraisal of Candidates

A tendency toward elimination of the experience requirement was reported by Allman (257) and by Umstattd and Hanson (276). The National Education Association (270) found that 24 of 40 large cities do not require experience of new elementary-school appointees and that eight have no experience requirement for new high-school appointees. Knight (268) discovered that a large majority of superintendents prefer experienced vocational agriculture teachers for both old and new positions.

About one-third of the 314 superintendents included in Umstattd and Hanson's study (276) favored five years of preparation for secondary-school teachers and more than one-half favored four years for elementary teachers. The National Education Association found that a minority of 40 large cities require these amounts. Allman (257) reported that superintendents expect teachers to take special interest in extracurriculum activities.

Hughes' study (267) of factors influencing placement of student teachers showed that general rating was the most important element and that scholarship average and teaching technic rating were the only other factors showing statistical significance, but that each of these seemed to influence placement only slightly. Data concerning 12 factors were obtained for this research from college records for 154 two-year and four-year graduates of East Carolina State Teachers College of the years 1934 and 1935.

Maxcy (269) discovered that academic and practice teaching superiority is of large advantage to normal school graduates in securing appointments in village and city schools but of small value in securing rural school positions. Umstattd and Hanson (276) reported that superintendents prefer candidates with superior scholarship records. The study by Maxcy was concerned with some factors related to the placement of graduates of normal schools in New York State and relied largely on questionnaire returns from 686 graduates of Potsdam State Normal School of the period 1923-35 and on records of the school.

Large cities which use eligibility lists generally employ oral and written examinations, according to the National Education Association (270). Coulbourn (262) concluded that written examinations are not necessary, but recommended careful study and verification of credentials and records. Knight (268) found that opinions of teacher trainers and supervisors concerning vocational agriculture teachers are highly regarded.

Knight (268) also indicated that the personal, social, and professional characteristics of beginning teachers are of principal importance and that

teaching success and professional growth are basic to advancement. Stack (275) found that after minimum educational qualifications had been met, personality was the most influential factor in selection. Character and magnetism were the two most important personal traits, in the opinion of superintendents who reported to Umstattd and Hanson (276). Barnes (259) showed that most Michigan communities prohibit drinking and profanity for men and women and smoking by the latter. Roughly similar findings for Minnesota communities were reported by Hanson and Umstattd (266) who also found that a desire to participate in politics and the use of cosmetics are handicaps but that dancing and card playing are not.

A trend toward narrowing the age range for applicants was reported by Allman (257), but the National Education Association (270) found that only 14 of 40 large cities prescribe age requirements and that age limits vary rather widely. Married men were preferred by 42 percent of the communities included in Hanson and Umstattd's survey (266). Requirement of a health examination of all teaching candidates was favored by superintendents who reported to Barnes (259). However, schoolboard rulebooks studied by the National Education Association (270) showed that such an examination is required by only a minority of 40 cities.

According to Maxcy (269) religious affiliation plays an important role in the placement of Potsdam State Normal School graduates. Hanson and Umstattd (266) reported similarly for Minnesota communities.

The provincial and unprofessional viewpoints of some boards of education were identified by Endicott (263) as an important problem for institutional placement agencies. Maxcy (269) discovered that provincialism and nepotism are widely practiced in rural school appointments in northern New York but are less frequently met with in village and city school appointments. Seay (271) concluded that nepotism and dishonorable practices in school appointments were not as common in Kentucky in 1938 as in 1933 but that participation by teachers in schoolboard elections seemed more serious. Unprofessional activities of teachers were compared by Seay on the basis of questionnaire returns secured in 1933 from 614 college students who had taught the previous school term and 683 who were engaged for the next term, and in 1938 from 432 and 574 college students, respectively, of similar employment status.

Miscellaneous

Endicott (263) reported that directors of teacher-placement bureaus are usually members of teacher-training staffs who give less than half time to the placement office; that teacher placement is ordinarily separate from placement of other graduates; and that bureaus are supported by the professional school budget and registration fees. Teacher-training departments and state supervisors were designated by Knight (268) as the two principal agencies engaged in the placement of vocational agriculture teachers. Snarr (273) found that the average cost to elementary teachers of placement by commercial agencies was \$45.43.

Maxcy (269) reported that the service field of the Potsdam State Normal School was coming to consist largely of the area contiguous to the institution. Snarr (273, 274) concluded that a definite positive relationship exists between the number of teachers placed by institutional agencies and their distance from the schools in which teachers are employed, but that the location of commercial agencies does not constitute a significant placement factor. Minnesota superintendents indicated to Umstattd and Hanson (276) a desire to draw teachers from varied sources.

Other trends identified by Maxcy (269) were that (a) graduates of Potsdam State Normal School have come to depend less on the institution for placement, more on their own initiative; (b) placement in rural schools was steadily increasing; and (c) placement was occurring later in the school year.

Smith's study (272) of the placement of beginning teachers in New Jersey high schools in relation to their preparation showed that such teachers are frequently assigned programs which do not include their major fields. Questionnaire returns from 285 inexperienced teachers of 1933-34 were the basis of this investigation. According to Endicott (263), placement of teachers with unusual subject combinations is a problem.

Recent decisions concerning teacher appointment rendered by higher state courts have been few. Those for 1936 were reviewed by Anderson (258) and those for 1937 and 1938 by Cooke (260).

CHAPTER VI

Local Residents and Married Women as Teachers¹

DENNIS H. COOKE and C. W. SIMMS

THE PROBLEMS of local residents and married women as teachers were reviewed previously by Cooke (282). He included 35 reports for the years 1934-36, inclusive. Few of the reports since this time show any scientific treatment of the problems in these fields. Most of the 47 reports referred to in this chapter consist primarily of opinions of the authors.

Arguments Concerning Local and Nonresident Teachers

Cooke (281) summarized the arguments usually presented in favor of local teachers as follows: (a) local teachers through knowledge many times avoid blunders made by the "foreign" teachers; (b) local teachers live at home and are able to maintain better health due to better living conditions; (c) superior teachers will remain in the system to be at home; and (d) local teachers are not absent from the city and the school as much as the "foreign" teachers. Wimbish and Lafferty (315) reported that schoolboards claim local teachers are an intelligent and economical investment and an insurance against teacher transiency. Young (316) stated that the home girl argues that she belongs to a permanent family which pays taxes and as a result she deserves first consideration.

Arguments usually presented against local teachers as given by Cooke (281) are: (a) an excessive number of local teachers makes the danger of "inbreeding" greater; (b) low salary schedules as a result of local teachers will not attract the best teachers; and (c) local teachers are many times promoted regardless of efficiency. Wimbish and Lafferty (315) stated that schoolboards discriminate against local teachers: (a) to minimize the influence of local politics; (b) to facilitate dismissals in case of unsatisfactory teachers; and (c) to insure the selection of properly qualified and adequately trained teachers. According to Young (316) local teachers have an unfair advantage as they can live at home and shift part of their expense to their parents. Coulbourn (284) is of the opinion that even though there may be justifiable reasons for employing a large number of local teachers in times of great economic stress, sound administration requires that the dangers of too much inbreeding be avoided.

Policies and Practices Concerning Local Residents as Teachers

Cooke, Hamon, and Proctor (283) concluded that in actual practice approximately 58 percent of the cities have policies favoring local candidates. This percent is less than that shown in rural areas. To avoid inbreeding they recommend that not more than one-half of the teachers in any system be local residents. Another research (303) has shown that there has been an increased pressure upon superintendents to employ local teachers

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 278.

since 1931. Only 14 percent of 256 city school systems reporting stated that they did not give preference to local teachers. Of the 86 cities with a population over 100,000 it was found that only eleven definitely favor local candidates. A few superintendents make an effort to keep their teaching staffs well balanced, but admit that if the local teachers have sufficient preparation and experience it would not be an incorrect procedure to elect them.

Tarbell (309) found that a greater number of local residents were finding employment through their own efforts, and oftentimes that of their friends, in their own home towns. In the five counties studied by Bucklen (279) in Minnesota evidence was presented to show that residence seems to be the most important factor influencing teacher selection, because 61 percent of all teachers selected resided in the county in which the selection took place. Umstatt and Hanson (310) reported that 54 percent of the superintendents who answered a questionnaire regarding their practices in teacher selection stated that they wanted no local teachers; one out of four preferred 10 percent local teachers; while one out of seven preferred from 11 to 20 percent. The number of local teachers employed greatly exceeded the wishes of the superintendents. In 22 elementary and seven secondary schools more than 50 percent of the teachers were local residents. On the other hand, 53 percent of the elementary and 70 percent of the secondary schools had no local teachers. Humphrey (291) cited data showing that of the 88 teachers employed in Johnson County, Kentucky, 63 of them were local residents.

Qualifications of Local and Nonresident Teachers

Joiner (273) in his study of the Eighth Congressional District of Georgia revealed that local teachers are employed in many systems, especially in the rural areas, with little college education. He found nonresident teachers to be better qualified than local teachers in almost every type of school system. Tarbell (309), in surveying the possibilities of employment for graduates of normal schools, reported that hometown residents were being employed without considering too minutely the excellence of their qualifications. The author of an article (285) dealing with the practices of trading teachers in the iron-range country of Minnesota reported that many capable teachers were being dismissed in an effort to avoid the questionable practice of having too many local teachers.

Cooke (281) is of the opinion that intimate contact with local patrons and the public in general may hinder the local teacher's effectiveness. This, however, may not apply in large cities, particularly if the local resident is teaching in a section remote from where she lives. Wimbish and Lafferty (314) found evidence to support the contention that local teachers are inadequately prepared. It was also found that a larger percent of nonlocal than local teachers joined professional organizations, and that this percent increased with the size of the school system. There is, however, no proof to show that a teacher's residence is in itself evidence

of the degree of his efficiency. Lafferty and Wimbish (294) concluded that local teachers have less transiency, longer experience, and greater maturity, while the "foreign" teachers receive higher salaries and have better academic preparation.

Humphrey (291) reported in his study that local teachers ranked higher than nonresident teachers on the basis of: (a) length of tenure in present position; and (b) percent of enrolments in correspondence and extension courses during the period in question. "Foreign" teachers ranked higher than local teachers on the basis of: (a) general scholastic preparation; (b) quantity of credit in education courses; (c) percent of membership in educational associations; (d) percent of attendance at the Kentucky Educational Association; (e) percent of attendance at the county faculty meetings; and (f) acquisition during the current year and succeeding summers of academic credits that were not required for present degree or certificate.

Local Teachers and Nepotism

Many people think that nepotism is merely the employment of a relative, when actually it is the showing of preference for relatives in bestowing patronage. If a relative of the superintendent is well qualified, as a rule, nepotism is not practiced when that person is appointed. As a result of this misconception of the term many qualified persons are discriminated against in an unwarranted fashion (302). Humphrey (291) found that of the 63 local teachers covered in his study, 65 percent of them were related to one or more of their employers, namely, the superintendent, members of the county board of education, and the subdistrict trustees.

Regulations Concerning Employment of Local Teachers

The Committee on Equal Opportunity of the National Education Association (302) failed to find any state laws or court decisions governing the practice of schoolboards in employing resident or nonresident teachers. Strict rules, therefore, against the employment of local residents usually represent an attempt on the part of school authorities to escape constant pressure from citizens who try to force appointment of their friends and relatives. Cooke (281) stated that few schoolboards have ruled against local teachers but many have ruled that they be preferred. Bucklen (279) found that the schoolboards in three of the five counties which he studied in Minnesota had rules requiring that the "county" teachers be given preference in teacher selection.

Arguments Concerning Married Women Teachers

Chamberlain and Meece (280) presented the following arguments in favor of the married woman teacher: (a) the attractive woman who finds it easy to marry is the kind of woman the schools need and cannot secure or retain under regulations against marriage; (b) prohibiting married women from teaching is but another example of interference with

the private lives of public employees; and (c) married women have a saner view on sex and are less likely to become "queer." Cooke (281) stated that those who contend married women are holding jobs whose husbands are able to support them, and that these jobs should be given to single women teachers, are attacking from economic and sociologic bases rather than on sound educational principles. Lobaugh (295) contended that the economic objection to double salaries, as large as these salaries loom in the eyes of the public, will appear insignificant when we begin to think of the teaching positions in terms of service to the child rather than as a political sinecure. Parker (304) was of the opinion that money values are placed above human values, and if schoolboards would place emphasis on their positions as educators rather than as employers of labor, no doubt the ban on married women teachers would be lifted.

In view of the fact that married women have spent time, money, and energy in preparation for teaching, Hill (289) did not think it fair to bar them from the profession. White (313) believed that the contention that the married woman is not willing to devote the necessary time to extracurriculum activities is unfair and that the unmarried woman spends as much time in pursuit as does the married woman in possession. Popenoe (306) thought that the present system of pedagogical celibacy is intolerable eugenically and that it results in lowering biological fitness in the teaching profession. He said, "The matter is almost axiomatic: if a woman is not inferior, she should be a wife and mother. If she is inferior, she should not be teaching." Schwankovsky (307) contended that legislation should be established to encourage marriage, thereby making motherhood honorable and maternity leave reasonable. In order for men and women to mature properly he believes they should live a normal life, which is a married life. Watson and others (311) were of the opinion that schoolboards should administer selective processes in such a way as to increase the opportunities for men and women with complete family experiences.

Sivertson (308) stated that although there may be many valid arguments against indefinite tenure, he who condemns it because it means the retention of married women is guilty of faulty economic reasoning in that children are deprived of well-trained and experienced teachers. In deploring the great number of single women teaching, McColley (297) was convinced that there should be a single standard for men and women in education, which offers equal rewards for the same type of work, and which makes no attempt to dictate marital or other conditions. Hall (287) said that instead of the usual arguments presented against married women teachers the real reason for discrimination is "patronage." Geisel (286) believed that one way to overcome the economic objection to married women teachers was to employ married women as teachers on a half-time, half-pay basis.

In contrast to the above reasoning which favors the employment of married women teachers, Chamberlain and Meece (280) summarized the arguments usually presented against them as follows: (a) the married

woman lacks genuine interest in her work as she is motivated by a desire to help her husband increase his estate; (b) the married woman teacher many times is a local resident and often through pressure prevents the authorities from dealing with her according to the best interest of the school; (c) only an exceptional individual can handle both a home and a career; and (d) the employment of married women will deprive men and single women of positions which they need as a means of supporting their families. Myers and Reynolds (300) engaged in a debate in which the latter answers the contention of the former that more married women are needed in the teaching profession. Reynolds stated that one out of six marriages end in divorce, while many others are unhappy marriages, and it is likely that many of these people will appear in the teaching profession. In this connection Wessel (312) added that it may be better to have the disappointments which come with singleness than the bitterness and cynicisms that come with unhappy marriages.

Married Women Teachers versus Single Women Teachers

There is a complete lack of objective evidence concerning the relative efficiency of either of these two groups of teachers. The Committee on Equal Opportunity of the National Education Association (301) stated that comparative studies show teaching efficiency to be an individual matter, relatively independent of marital status, but with whatever slight advantage there may be on the side of the married women teachers. The Committee pointed out, however, that this advantage may be due to selection, because the unsuccessful teachers are likely to resign upon marriage, and a select group of married women would continue to teach.

McKee (298) ascertained the opinions of pupils regarding their teachers and found that, on the whole, the group of 460 pupils preferred the married woman rather than the single woman teacher.

The Courts and the Married Woman Teacher

The courts, as a rule, have upheld the right of the married woman to teach. The enactment of tenure legislation is said to be the most important factor in making the position of the married woman teacher more secure (299). Andersen (277) pointed out the usual reasoning of the courts when he stated that restraint of marriage is against public policy and is so generally accepted in law that contracts violating this principle are incapable of enforcement. Rules against the employment of married women teachers many times have been held to be arbitrary, unreasonable, and beyond the discretionary powers of schoolboards. Hodgdon (290) reported that the woman teacher in this country has the same right to marry as any other professional woman who has prepared herself for a special position in life such as the woman lawyer, doctor, or college professor. It should be noted, however, that this refers only to those under tenure.

If the causes for dismissal are named in the law, and marriage is not one of them, local schoolboards may not terminate a teacher's contract

solely because of marriage. Only two states, Kentucky and North Carolina, and the District of Columbia have specific legislation protecting the married woman teacher from discriminatory dismissal. Some of the other states have similar protection under tenure laws (301).

Loomis (296) in an attorney general's opinion ruled that marriage is not a just cause for dismissal and that a salary cut for the purpose of forcing the resignation of a married woman teacher is a subterfuge to circumvent the law. He further reasoned that the law does not favor indirectly that which is forbidden by statute when done directly.

Jeffrey (292) found that the courts have not always favored the married woman teacher. He cited cases in Missouri wherein decisions were not in agreement.

Current Trends

Married women are employed as new teachers in less than one-half of the cities over 100,000 in population and in less than one-fifth of the cities between 30,000 and 100,000. Sixty-four of the ninety-three larger cities permit teaching after marriage, while fewer than one-half of the smaller schools allow such. In the larger cities discrimination against married women teachers has been checked to a great extent. In the smaller cities there is evidence to indicate increased discrimination against married women as new teachers. In 1928 it was found that 32.6 percent of the women teachers were married. In 1931 this percent was 23.8 and in 1938 it had decreased to 19.7 (303). Anthony (278), in deploring this increased discrimination against the employment of married women as new teachers, pointed out that recently in Massachusetts five bills were introduced against married women working. The movement became so strong that many married women teachers whose husbands were teaching in the same system, in order to keep their jobs, had to bare their financial obligations.

Coulbourn (284) found that 29 of 37 large cities recognize the eligibility of married women for assignment or appointment as regular teachers. Of those cities that bar married women, exceptions are made upon proof that their husbands are unable to support them. Cooke, Hamon, and Proctor (283) reported that in large city school systems slightly more consideration is given to the married woman teacher with dependents than to those without dependents. More married women are employed in elementary than in secondary schools.

Hanson and Umstaddt (288) stated that seven-eighths of the secondary schools in Minnesota have no married women teachers. Approximately 84 percent of the superintendents said that the rejection of married women teachers was due to economic stress. Peters (305) concluded that if marriage does not involve change of residence, the woman who marries may remain in her position in less than 60 percent of the school systems in the United States. If marriage does involve change of residence, she may remain in less than 20 percent of the school systems.

CHAPTER VII

In-Service Training of Teachers¹

CECIL H. ALLEN

Continued Need for In-Service Training

EDUCATIONAL AUTHORITIES have seemed to agree that increasing standards for preservice education of teachers will not necessarily lessen the need for continued in-service preparation and professional growth. Ade (317) concluded that no amount of time spent in college or university will complete the preparation of the teacher for her classroom tasks. Cole (323) took the position that teachers, like doctors, ministers, and lawyers, must continue with their education after graduation. Constantly appearing new technics and materials make education in service absolutely necessary.

Fowler (325) contended that if teachers are to become real leaders in their respective schools they must be provided with a program of in-service training which is concerned with "doing" and not merely with "listening." Gray (329) stated that this need is not due to the fact that college teaching is becoming less effective but rather to the fact that we are continually facing new and challenging problems.

"Teacher Training" versus "Teacher Education"

The term "teacher training" is being replaced rapidly in educational literature by the term "teacher education." Zook (355) stated that our colleges have been busy "training" teachers in the performance of certain educational tasks but have failed in many instances to "educate" them in the science of really understanding and teaching children. He concluded that teachers should become real diagnosticians before they can hope to succeed as practitioners in the classroom. Such achievement as this, according to his statement, would warrant the substitution of the term "teacher education" for "teacher training." Valentine (351) noted the changing emphasis in this regard and characterized many of our training technics as educational "side shows" which are stealing the time and money that should be spent in the major performance of *educating* teachers so that they, in turn, can *educate* children.

A Period of Internship Recommended

Pressey (337) contended that there should be a period of internship (or plan of cadet teaching) for beginning teachers which would require actual residence in the community and would provide a responsibility both for school and community contacts. Several plans for providing a period of internship were given in his report.

Carley (320) reviewed the plan of in-service education followed at Stan-

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 279.

ford University which provided not only for the usual internship but also for a follow-up period under personal supervision of the college staff. She stated that coordinators were employed to visit the teachers in their classrooms and to advise with them both individually and in small group conferences held on the campus and at other convenient centers. Flowers (324) reported a plan of follow-up service used with the young teachers sent out from the New Jersey State Teachers College at Montclair, and listed as the major activities: (a) written reports; (b) personal visits; and (c) conferences with principals and teachers in charge.

Northway and others (336) in reviewing cooperative ways of improving the training of teachers in New York State held that they needed a period of internship analogous to that for graduates of medical schools. The reported activities sponsored by the teacher-training institutions included six types of service: (a) field supervision by faculty members; (b) group conferences held at parent institutions or other convenient centers; (c) bulletin service; (d) extension courses; (e) library-service information; and (f) demonstrations and follow-up conferences scheduled regularly on Saturdays at parent institutions. Other activities carried on independently by different school systems, such as found in the East School at Long Beach, were listed as follows: (a) weekly professional faculty meetings; (b) intraschool classroom visitations; (c) development of special abilities and talent among teachers; (d) professionalized parent-teacher meetings; (e) affiliations with various local and service organizations; and (f) professional reading through the use of library.

The *Journal of the National Education Association* (331) reported a unique and very satisfactory teacher-student exchange plan worked out at the Eastern State Normal School, Castine, Maine. According to this plan, a college student with approved training would be sent out in the field for six weeks to relieve a regular teacher who in turn would enrol for credit courses in the college. Specified credits also were allowed the student in the field for his or her work in apprentice teaching. A program of internship or apprenticeship worked out by Superintendent F. R. Wegner of the Roslyn Heights (New York) Schools was described (349), wherein prospective teachers could continue their graduate work in college and at the same time get teaching experience with pay. Such teachers, approved by the board of education, were paid a fee of \$500 for the school year in compensation for their services.

Brink (319), in discussing the values and problems of internship teaching, outlined the program being conducted at Northwestern University in conjunction with cooperating public schools. The plan required those students participating to meet graduate standing along with other professional and personal qualities. The program consisted of an initial summer school and a year of internship teaching under supervision followed by a second summer school session. The student completing the entire program satisfactorily met the requirements for the master's degree.

Plans for In-Service Training in Cities

Steele (345) reported a plan put into practice in the Los Angeles Public Schools where the faculty of each school organized a seminar group for professional study. It was conducted jointly by the principal and some representatives from the staff of a nearby educational institution.

Gowans (328) gave an account of a two-week conference organized for the Tulsa, Oklahoma, teachers to take the place of the usual summer school attendance. The conference, conducted by nationally known educational leaders, was well attended and very successful. A fee of \$25 was charged for the period and three hours of credit were allowed by the university for work satisfactorily completed.

B. L. Smith (343) reviewed the result of an experiment conducted in the Greensboro, North Carolina, city schools in which certain teachers among the different schools within the system were required to exchange positions for one day only. The exchanges were preceded by careful planning of work between the sets of teachers who were to substitute for one another. According to the report, the experiment proved quite valuable as a means of improving teachers in service. Reed (339) reported the organization of a study committee on visual aids in the Rochester public schools to analyze and promote the best ways of providing in-service training in visual education among the teachers of that system. Final outcomes were not available, but the writer indicated splendid interest shown among the teachers and excellent response in their efforts to employ visual aids in the classrooms. Another plan recommended for encouraging the use of visual aids was reported by Stracke (348) in the Flint, Michigan, public schools. Photographs were taken of the various projects and classroom activities and used later for diagnostic and instructional purposes.

Miller and Cahee (334) outlined a program of using demonstration lessons as a type of in-service training for elementary-school principals and teachers in the Baltimore Public Schools. Four classes of demonstrations were listed: (a) general demonstrations for any teachers in the system who wished to attend; (b) demonstrations for teachers in a particular school; (c) demonstrations primarily for the benefit of principals; and (d) demonstrations by supervisors or principals for the benefit of individual teachers. Levin (333) also cited the curriculum revision activities of the Baltimore teachers working in larger and smaller committees as a valuable aid in in-service training.

County school systems—Richardson (342) gave an interesting report of a special type of institute conducted for the Los Angeles County teachers. The series of programs and activities for the 4,200 teachers concerned consisted of 157 meetings held in late afternoons, evenings, and Saturday mornings over a two-month period during the school year. Lectures and conferences were combined with visits to schools, industrial and commercial plants, and supervised work in the laboratories. Results showed marked improvement in the classroom work and in the general professional attitude of the teachers participating.

State Programs of In-Service Training

Ade (317), in outlining a program of in-service education for the teachers of Pennsylvania, included the following types of activities for supervisors or teachers or for both: (a) constructive supervision; (b) demonstration and school visits; (c) consultative services in school districts; (d) follow-up service by teacher-education institutions; (e) summer study; (f) extension and home study; (g) professional and cultural reading; (h) travel; (i) sabbatical leave; (j) institutes or teachers' meetings; and (k) affiliation with professional organizations. Reviewing the supervisory functions employed by the secondary-school principals in Delaware in improving the instruction of their teachers, Hudnall (330) listed the following divisions of service: (a) guidance in teacher growth; (b) administration of the learning situation; (c) class visitation and conference work; and (d) materials of instruction.

Chase (321) reported the result of a survey made to determine the efforts and means put forth among high-school principals in Virginia to stimulate more professional growth of their teachers. The report included replies from 266 principals. The following agencies were listed and discussed: (a) summer school attendance; (b) demonstration teaching; (c) teachers' meetings; (d) class visitation by principals followed by conferences with teachers; (e) professional reading; and (f) experimentation. Recommendations advocated personal recognitions and salary awards for encouraging greater improvement and professional growth among teachers.

Franseth (326) outlined a detailed program introduced at the South Georgia Teachers College for preparing helping teachers to become supervisors in the rural schools of that state. Carefully selected juniors and seniors of promise and experience were given practical courses in supervision and supervisory field work in schools where they later were to become regularly employed supervisors of instruction. Ried (340) reviewed the plan of a controlled experiment being conducted in the University of Nebraska in an effort to evaluate in-service education of teachers through objective measurements of the pupils being taught. About 75 teachers in approximately 50 schools were selected. Control groups both for teachers and pupils were provided and an intensive program of in-service guidance was set up. Later reports and conclusions on this investigation were not found.

Growth Activities for Teachers and Principals

Quinn (338) outlined seven things that beginning teachers might do to improve their educational growth while employed as teachers in the field: (a) professional study; (b) personal contacts; (c) participation in community affairs; (d) traveling; (e) visiting museums, art galleries, libraries, etc.; (f) self-analysis; and (g) developing a wholesome hobby. Stoddard (30) offered a similar list of activities with the following additional items suggested: (a) participation in formulating school policies and developing its curriculum; (b) carrying on classroom experiments;

and (c) engaging in activities in summer workshops. Johnson (332) offered a helpful list of activities to promote the improvement and growth of principals in service. His list included: (a) principals' conferences, general and sectional; (b) research committees serving as a clearinghouse for keeping principals in touch with newer educational studies; (c) inter-school visitations by principals; and (d) compilation of unusual problems to be distributed to principals for solution.

A series of articles were written by four administrators and teachers in New York State for the purpose of recommending certain activities through which growth in service might be realized. Trainer (350) pointed out the need of real creative supervision to prevent even the best teachers from becoming static and cited evidence of such supervision in some parts of rural New York. Young (353) evaluated the summer school as another agency for the growth of teachers and held that the superior teachers benefit most by summer school instruction. Smith (344) stated that extension courses are beneficial not only to people who desire to meet degree requirements but also to teachers in service who seek help in their classroom problems. Rhodes (341) recognized the extreme importance of teachers growing and developing in service through a variety of extramural activities. They should contact boys and girls out of the classroom through their clubs and societies as well as become closely affiliated with the business and civic organizations of the community in which they live.

In-Service Training for College Faculties

Friley (327) reported a very comprehensive program of in-service training of college teachers being promoted in the Iowa State Teachers College. Some of the major activities included: (a) department meetings for discussing teaching problems and stimulating special studies; (b) conferences among department heads and individual teachers; (c) development of special interests among staff members with necessary adjustments made in schedules; (d) supervision of younger instructors by older members of staff; and (e) encouragement of experimental studies on the part of the teaching staff by the administration.

Zeigel (354) enumerated eight major means of carrying out an in-service training program for the faculty members in the Delta State Teachers College, Cleveland, Mississippi. His list of activities, omitting some subtopics, may be summarized as follows: (a) institutional study among various study groups; (b) productive scholarship, group and individual; (c) enriched living through certain social and cultural contacts; (d) professional meetings; (e) leave of absence for study and teaching; (f) visitation of classrooms; (g) use of library, laboratory, and instructional materials for study and research; and (h) professional ethics for teachers. The writer suggested several underlying principles in promoting an effective program of in-service training. He recognized the need of the sympathetic support of the administration and the wise leadership of those responsible for outlining and directing the program of activities.

Newer Practices in In-Service Education

Wilson (352) cited the possibility of the radio as a promising agency for the improvement of teachers while in service and reported some initial activities being promoted along this line. Experiments being conducted at Princeton University, Ohio State University, and the Harvard Graduate School of Education were recommended for further investigation. Wilson stated that through the medium of radio "a short cut may be found for translating educational research and experience into action and common practice."

The introduction of the summer workshop for teachers to take the place of the traditional summer school curriculum is growing in favor in some sections of the country. Richardson (342) gave a brief report of the functions of one workshop and reviewed some of the values it offered. Several articles, with authors not reported, were printed in the same issue in which teachers were commending the use of the workshop as an effective means of helping teachers while in service.

Northway (335) pointed out the need of and the trend toward a closer relationship between the pre-service and the in-service education of teachers. The latter should strive for a perfection of technic and a continuation of professional growth based upon the broader, more cultural content of the undergraduate curriculum. Ried (340) stated that there was a definite trend toward an increased emphasis on a fifth year of professional training in which the student becomes an "apprentice" in teaching.

Allen (318) discussed the close relationship that should exist between pre-service and in-service education of teachers and referred to the program of work being carried on at the Woman's College of the University of North Carolina as an illustration of his point of view. The so-called "field teacher-trainer" endeavors to keep the college staff informed of the progress and needs of graduates in the field and also substitutes for the campus instructors at times so that they may follow up firsthand the students who are trying to adjust themselves in teaching service.

Stoddard (347), in discussing the trends of in-service education of teachers, pointed with some optimism to the studies and experiments which were to be conducted within the next three years in some thirty-four institutions and school systems of the United States under the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education. These investigations have to do with the program of teacher education in service. Some work has already been accomplished. He stated that we needed to provide more opportunities for experienced teachers to study together in groups on problems of common concern under trained leadership; that too much distinction has been made between the stages of pre-service and in-service education; and that the one should gradually merge into the other. The school system in reality should be a laboratory for rounding out the full educational development of the teachers and administrators in service.

CHAPTER VIII

Size of Class and Teaching Load¹

HARL R. DOUGLASS and A. J. PARKHURST

Size of Classes

THOSE who advocate larger classes in the schools maintain that such classes are preferable because they offer a better socializing and democratizing situation and contribute to a lighter load in terms of class periods per week. These advocates are not unmindful of possible reduced expenditures as a result of large classes. On the other hand, the many who strongly advocate small classes hold that the most important outcomes of teaching, such as character development and appreciations, cannot be acquired by pupils in large classes as readily as in small classes; and that these outcomes, not being measured, are overlooked in comparisons. They claim that the large class is a false economy.

Conley (362) sent out questionnaires to instructors in every junior college in the United States having more than fifteen full-time instructors. Questionnaires were returned by more than 1,400 individuals. From 1,150 usable returns he found that the average class size of public junior colleges is 34.0 and that of private junior colleges is 24.2. Statistics on the size of classes in the elementary schools of New York City show an average class size of 34.7 pupils—the lowest average class size in the history of the New York public school system (385). Rosenlof (386) reported a decrease of 17 percent in the number of schools reporting an excess of 30 pupils per teacher among the secondary schools of the North Central Association for the year 1936-37.

A study made by the National Education Association (381) reported a median class size of 35.1 pupils in elementary schools and an average class size of approximately 26.5 pupils for secondary teachers. (The median number of pupils per day for each teacher was 159, with an average of slightly more than six periods per day.) The data for this study were compiled from questionnaires returned by 1,649 elementary- and 2,058 secondary-school teachers. Of the 3,707 teachers returning questionnaires, 31 percent were from cities of over 100,000 population, 30 percent from cities of from 30,000 to 100,000 population, 21 percent from cities of from 10,000 to 30,000 population, and 18 percent were from cities of less than 10,000 population. Communities from 40 states were included.

Proposals for Reducing Size of Class

Gates (372), after pointing out the present decreases in the birth-rate, advocated that school administrators should allow the size of classes to be

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 281.

decreased automatically in the elementary school instead of reducing the number of elementary-school teachers. He said the basic cause of failure in reading, as well as in other subjects, is the large class. Of the teachers reported in the study made by the National Education Association (381), 72 percent of the elementary and 58 percent of the secondary groups had, during recent years, taught classes of 42 pupils or more. In the judgment of this group of teachers, the average class size considered reasonable was about 30 pupils and the average maximum class size was placed at approximately 35 pupils per class. The agreement in the average ratings by elementary- and secondary-school teachers is surprisingly close, being only a trifle higher for elementary classes.

Effect of Class Size on Learning

Baker (356) found the size of class of which a pupil is a member to be one of the five prominent related factors which determined the teacher's knowledge of the pupil. Eastburn (366) stated that the data derived from his study do not lend any support to the belief that slow students, when homogeneously grouped, do better in small classes than in large ones. In general, large classes are shown to be advantageous to bright pupils when the grouping is heterogeneous. When grouping is homogeneous the slow pupils seem to be at a greater advantage in large classes than the bright pupils. Eastburn and Garretson (367) concluded that the results of their investigation cast some doubt on the advisability of the prevailing practices of sectioning students of the lower ability level into smaller classes than students of the upper and middle ability level.

The National Education Association study (381) emphasized the unfortunate results of large classes for both teachers and pupils in the reports of nearly two-thirds of the 3,707 cooperating teachers—a majority of whom either were teaching or had recently taught classes of 42 pupils or more. Especially significant is the frequent testimony of these teachers that large classes prevent adequate interest in and help for the individual pupil; hinder the cordial pupil-teacher relationships which are essential for effective guidance; and add materially to the number of jobs to be done and especially to the amount of energy and nervous tension required in teaching.

Importance of Teaching Load

The National Education Association investigation, "The Teacher Looks at Teacher Load" (381), started the introduction of the study with the following paragraph:

The quality of teaching service and the effectiveness of pupil-teacher relationships are determined not only by the competence and diligence of teachers themselves but also very largely by the weight of teaching assignments and by working conditions which help to govern teaching load. This being true, teacher loads and the various factors contributing to them are matters of immediate and vital concern both to administrators and supervisors, who are responsible for the economical and efficient oper-

ation of schools, and to teachers, whose primary interest lies in the wholesome growth and development of pupils.

The Measurement of Teaching Load

Eells (368) reported the reasons for the adoption of the Douglass formula for the measurement of teacher load by those in charge of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards. To overcome the relative difficulty of computation which has been the chief objection to the Douglass formula, the Cooperative Study has developed a simplification. This makes it possible to compute the teacher load for an individual teacher, after the teacher has supplied the necessary data, in two to three minutes by hand, or in one to two minutes with a computing machine. Myers (380) selected the Douglass formula for his study, stating:

As compared to these formulae the Douglass formula is the most complete, since it includes the important items of duplicate assignments, the number of preparations, the weighting of the cooperation load, and subject coefficients, as well as the pupil load, and adjustment to length of periods. Although other formulae include one or more of these items, no other combines them into a single measure. Furthermore, the Douglass formula results in a mathematical total which facilitates objective comparisons. In fact, it probably includes all of the important elements which are now measurable.

Myers (380) offered the following improvement of the Douglass formula which he suggested for use in large city high schools:

$$TL = \left[(CP + HRP) - \frac{2 \text{ Dup}}{10} + \frac{NP - 20 (CP - HRP)}{100} \right. \\ \left. + PC + \frac{2 \text{ PSH}}{3} \right] \left[\frac{PL + 55}{100} \right]$$

Where: CP = Class periods per week
 Dup = Duplicate assignments
 NP = Number of pupils
 HRP = Homeroom periods
 PC = Periods devoted to cooperations
 PSH = Study-hall periods
 PL = Length of period

Newsom and Pollack (382) made an analysis and comparison of various methods of computing teaching load. Their analysis was made in order to facilitate the choice of one method for the use of the administrator or supervisor on the assumption that administrators and supervisors are interested not so much in "total load" of a teacher as in the relations between the loads of different teachers. For this purpose a checklist was set up which, according to the writers, presented in a rather generalized form all the determining factors considered in ten methods of computing teacher load. Their conclusions as to the desirabilities of the methods of computation, in rank order, are as follows: (1) Ward; (2) Reichard, Koos, Brown, and Fritzemier; (3) Philadelphia Public Schools—Tritt and Keyes; (4) Middle States Association (pupil period); (5) Almack and Bursch; (6) Middle States Association (class periods)—Douglass, 1928; (7) Douglass, 1932.

Teaching Load in Colleges and Universities

A method for the evaluation of faculty loads in higher education was presented by Knowles and White (375). They stated that to apportion teaching assignments in academic units is to imply that all such units measure the same amount of load in terms of time and effort required of a faculty member. This would mean that three credit hours of freshman composition would be equivalent in load to three credit hours of algebra, economics, accounting, or philosophy. A research project was carried on by these authors in cooperation with 228 teachers and administrative officers located in 200 colleges and universities of the United States. The study indicated that such an assumption is quite false and that the ratio of total time required of a teacher to semester hour credits carried by a course varies all the way from 2.9 to 5.5 among ten selected college courses for which data were obtained. The conclusion was drawn that each instructor's assignments need to be individually evaluated in clock hours per week if it is desired to measure his load in a reasonably accurate and meaningful way.

Michell (378), by a rather logical time analysis, found that the fifteen-hour load common to instructors in higher education may often entail over eighty hours of actual time load. Conley's study (362) of the teaching load of junior college instructors was made for both public and private junior colleges. Clock hours rather than credit hours were used in computing the teaching load. The table below sums up the results of the study.

	Public junior colleges	Private junior colleges
Average teaching load (hours in class).....	17.3	16.0
Other instructional duties.....	17.7	18.3
Other duties, student activities, committee work, administrative work, etc.....	16.3	19.6
Total load.....	51.4	53.9

Pupil-Teacher Ratios

Foster (370, 371) reported on pupil-teacher ratios in city school systems. In the ten years from 1924 to 1934, the highest average number of pupils enrolled per teacher was 38 pupils in cities of 100,000 population and over in 1924. The lowest was 27 pupils in cities of from 30,000 to 100,000 population from 1926 to 1930, inclusive. For all cities of 2,500 population and more combined there were 30 pupils per teacher in 1924 and 1934, 29 pupils per teacher in 1925 and 1932, and 28 pupils per teacher in 1928 and 1930. All the improvement that was made in securing more satisfactory pupil-teacher ratios from 1924 to 1928 was lost at practically the same rate from 1928 to 1934.

Changes in pupil-teacher ratio in different types of schools are also significant. For cities of 10,000 population and more, the ratio in elementary schools decreased from 37.1 to 36.9 from 1930 to 1934 as would be expected in view of the generally decreasing total elementary-school enrolment due to a declining birth-rate. In junior high schools the ratio increased from 28.6 to 30.4 and in senior and regular high schools it increased from 26.7 to 30.9 pupils per teacher in this period, reflecting the great increases in high-school enrolments since 1930.

Rosenlof (386) reported for the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools a small decline in pupil-teacher ratios in that territory. Pupil-teacher ratios of less than 21 were reported in 1936 by 31 percent of the schools, and in 1937 by 33 percent; ratios of 21 to 25 by 34 percent in 1936 and in 1937 by the same percent; ratios of 26 to 30 by 28 percent in 1936, and in 1937 by 27 percent; and ratios of more than 30 pupils per teacher by 7.5 percent of the schools in 1936, and in 1937 by 6 percent. Pupil-teacher ratios advance rapidly as the enrolment of the high school increases. While 72 percent of the schools enrolling less than 200 pupils had ratios under 21 pupils per teacher, less than 1 percent of the schools enrolling 1,000 pupils and over had like ratios. Less than 1 percent of the schools enrolling under 200 pupils had ratios of over 30 pupils per teacher, whereas 23 percent of the schools enrolling 1,000 pupils and over had such ratios.

The pupil-teacher ratio in federally aided home economics courses in all-day and evening schools, according to race and years, was reported by Caliver (360). The pupil-teacher ratio in all-day schools was: white, 50.4 and Negro, 45.1 in 1934-35. For the same year the ratio in evening schools was 66.4 and 42.5, respectively.

Miscellaneous Reports of Load

The number of schools in which teachers were assigned less than four periods daily decreased from 22 percent in 1936 to 18 percent in 1937 according to Rosenlof's study (386); schools reporting from four to six periods daily increased from 75 percent in 1936 to 80 percent in 1937; but there was a slight decrease from the 2.8 percent reporting more than six periods taught daily in 1936 to 2.2 percent in 1937.

Boardman's report (357) described an attempt on the part of the faculty of the University High School of the University of Minnesota to learn something about the distribution of the teaching load among themselves. An adaptation of the Douglass formula was used to determine indexes of load. Brock (358) investigated the time spent in teaching activities by the teachers in the schools of Liberty, Missouri. He found that the elementary teacher's average day is ten hours and twenty-two minutes, while the average day of the high-school teacher is ten hours and forty minutes.

Ryan (387) sent questionnaires to 76 universities and teachers colleges in the North Central territory in an investigation of practice-

teaching load in laboratory schools. He found that the typical university laboratory school has a practice-teacher load of two to each class, whereas the typical teachers college laboratory school has a load of three practice teachers to each class.

Forty-four percent of the 3,707 teachers who returned questionnaires in the National Education Association study (381) rated their present total teaching loads as unduly heavy or extreme. Forty-four load factors were included on the questionnaire form. Although no single item among the 44 listed was designated as the cause of excessive load pressure by a majority of the teachers, heavy load pressures tend to center around a few specific factors but are not confined to any one aspect of the teaching process. The ten most commonly mentioned factors involved the general areas of (a) class size and pupil load; (b) plant facilities; (c) teaching methods; and (d) administrative procedures.

The study concluded with the following paragraph:

The problem of teaching load cuts across both financial administration and personnel administration. Adequate school funds are essential if class size and pupil loads are to be held within reasonable limits. The fundamental problem further exists of creating and maintaining wholesome personal relationships and of making suitable personnel adjustments to the total situation. Consequently, the most promising avenue to a satisfactory solution of such teaching-load problems or to improvement in the distribution of teaching assignments would seem to be that of local analysis of load problems followed by the formulation of policies and standards through friendly staff discussion in the typical democratic way.

Certain aspects of teaching load, such as number of different subjects taught, and extra duties, are discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER IX

Teaching Combinations in High Schools¹

HARL R. DOUGLASS and A. J. PARKHURST

THE NUMBER of the investigations, studies, and surveys of teaching combinations has decreased markedly in the past few years. A bibliography of thirty-nine items accompanied Malmberg's review (403) of three years ago.

Langfitt (402) attributed the improved conditions in the assignments of teachers to fewer subjects and, in part at least, to the professional leadership of many state departments of education in showing schedule-makers how to build adequate daily schedules without assigning classes to teachers in more than two teaching fields. He stated that happily the day is almost past when teachers, even in small high schools, need to be compelled to teach in three or more teaching fields. Progress in the selection of curriculum offerings, and in the principles and art of schedule-making has greatly improved the general situation in the high schools of most states.

Cooke (399), on the other hand, believes there is a widespread feeling that teacher preparation has become too specialized. From the point of view of the teacher in preparation and in view of the wide variety of duties and teaching he will be called upon to do, it is desirable for the prospective teacher to take sufficient courses in four subject fields to meet certification requirements in them.

Schwehn (409) received returns from 221 women teachers of physical education in Indiana. This was 74 percent of all such teachers in the state. The table below shows the percent of these teachers who were assigned to teach physical education as a single subject and as a combination with one, two, three, or four other subjects, in high schools of varying size. The average number of "extra duties" required of these

Teaching combination	All schools	Less than 300 pupils	300-499 pupils	500 pupils and over
Physical education only	21	6	13	56
Physical education +1 subject . . .	25	20	35	33
Physical education +2 subjects . . .	41	53	43	11
Physical education +3 subjects . . .	12	19	9	0
Physical education +4 subjects . . .	1	2	0	0

teachers was 15.3. The five "extra duties" most frequently listed were study-hall supervision, club adviser, class adviser, homeroom teacher, and

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 282.

health worker. Eighty-six percent were advisers of from one to five clubs. Eleven percent were advisers of six or more clubs. Three percent advised no clubs.

The teacher-load study made by the National Education Association (405) disclosed that 9 percent of the junior high-school teachers and 11 percent of the senior high-school teachers reporting found the number of different subjects assigned them to be unsatisfactory.

An interesting picture of the preparation of beginning high-school teachers for subjects assigned to them is shown by Clement (398) in a study of three hundred new teachers in California for the school year 1935-36. Of the total number, 76 percent were assigned to one or two teaching areas and 24 percent to three or more teaching fields. Only 51 percent of the teachers were teaching in their major or minor fields. More than one-fifth of the teachers were found to be teaching in two or more areas for which they would be considered to be without special preparation.

Potthoff (406) pointed out that because of the number of sections taught in medium-sized and small high schools it is necessary to assign more than one and in many cases three or four different subjects to any one teacher in order to provide him with a full teacher load. Even among large schools it is necessary to assign as many as two or three subjects to numerous teachers. In another investigation Potthoff (407) pointed out that, in general, the situation at present exhibits almost a total lack of any commonly employed guiding principles for determining the combinations of subjects that shall be set up in order to simplify existing combinations. In an attempt to remedy this condition, Potthoff, in his latest study (408), set up a simplified system of teaching combinations based on a study of existing arrangements in 400 Illinois high schools having no more than ten teachers on the staff. For these schools the simplified system which he developed contains a total of 104 in contrast to the 543 different combinations which he found in practice. Various aspects of his scheme are discussed at length, including its implications for teacher education.

Baker (397) found the total amount of study by the teacher in the subjects taught to be a related factor in teachers' knowledge of their pupils. Subject combinations outside a teacher's major and minor fields would probably tend to concentrate the teacher's attention on subjectmatter preparation rather than on attention to pupil needs and interests.

It would seem to be true that, as emphasized in the 1937 *Review of Educational Research*, "chaotic conditions still exist with respect to subject combinations."

CHAPTER X

Mental and Physical Health of Teachers and Administrative Adjustments¹

DEWEY B. STUIT

THE NUMBER OF RESEARCH PUBLICATIONS on the mental and physical health of teachers appearing during the last three years is not large. At first this seems a bit surprising in view of the stress which is being placed on these two subjects in the popular literature of education and at professional meetings. However, it should be remembered that many studies pertaining to teaching success are related to the subject of mental and physical health. Broadly defined, the mental and physical health of teachers should include a discussion of all measures relating to the selection and training of the school's personnel. The research worker or administrator interested in this field should, therefore, make a careful examination of the literature on selection of students by teacher-training institutions and programs of teacher education. Since the teacher is first of all a person, the general literature on physical and mental health problems should also have implications. Only studies of a distinct research character or those which set forth definite ideas for research are included in this summary. A few studies based upon general observation are included because it is recognized that the problem is not easily attacked through the traditional technics of educational research. Representative publications are referred to in the review but a more complete list of references has been prepared for the interested reader and is presented in the bibliography.

Mental and Physical Health Problems of Teachers

The discovery of the nature and causes of mental and physical health problems among teachers has been the object of both research and critical discussion. An extensive survey conducted by the Yearbook Committee of the Department of Classroom Teachers (423) revealed that about 15 or 20 percent of the teachers responding to their questionnaire lacked the degree of health required for successful classroom work. The most common form of illness reported was grippe, with operations and laryngitis occupying second and third positions respectively. Approximately 4 percent had been refused life insurance because of some health defect. Perhaps the most serious condition revealed by the inquiry was that 38 percent of the teachers reported persistent worries serious enough to interfere with sleep, health, and teaching efficiency.

The underlying causes of physical and mental ill health among teachers can be classified as being either of an environmental or occupational char-

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 283.

acter or of a more personal type. Conditions of employment, inadequate recreational facilities, occupational insecurity, lack of social prestige, and inadequacy of financial returns represent the major environmental factors in teacher maladjustments (423, 430, 436). Emotional immaturity, lack of adaptive ability, absence of interesting hobbies, and idiosyncrasies resulting in friction with associates are listed as some of the more important personal causes of mental ill health (413, 423, 430, 436). In their study of neuroticism, Phillips and Greene (429) found that for single women there was an increase in neuroticism until age thirty and a decline thereafter, while for married women there was a continuous decline with age. The best adjusted teachers were found to participate in active outdoor and social hobbies while the poorly adjusted group participated more frequently in work-type activities.

Teachers' Knowledge of Mental and Physical Health

If knowledge is essential for intelligent action and planning, it would seem that teachers should be familiar with the fundamental principles of mental and physical hygiene and that teacher-training institutions should make provision for the necessary courses of instruction. In a study of this problem Clements (411) examined the catalogs of Class A teachers colleges for the years 1933-34 and sent letters to state superintendents of public instruction asking for legal health requirements for teachers. The average requirements in health instruction for 162 Class A teachers colleges are 7.4 quarter hours for the two-year curriculums and 13.6 quarter hours for the four-year curriculums. Fourteen Class A teachers colleges have added mental hygiene to their required health instruction courses. Hobson (417) attempted to measure the knowledge possessed by teachers concerning mental hygiene and concluded that they show a sufficient lack of knowledge of modern mental hygiene to warrant the recommendation that teachers be required to take at least one course in this field. Supervisors and teachers with the largest amount of training made the highest scores in the test which he employed. Errors on the individual items ranged from 3 to 52 percent.

That teachers are likely to hold mental hygiene courses in high esteem was demonstrated in a study by Wallin (438). Eighty-five students, primarily teachers, pursuing a course on personality maladjustments and mental hygiene were asked to rank the value of the course in mental hygiene with the six courses pursued in college which were considered by them to be of most value personally and professionally. The results show that, based on the criterion of personal value, mental hygiene obtained more than twice as many votes for the highest rank as the sum total for all other branches, while on the criterion of professional value it received three more votes than all other branches combined for first position. Perhaps there is more than a remote possibility that teachers themselves may demand more instruction in mental hygiene.

Effect of Teachers' Health and Personality on Pupils

Society's keen interest in the health of teachers is largely prompted by the recognition of the fact that the intellectual and personal growth of pupils is almost certain to be influenced by the quality of the teachers' mental and physical health. As Goldrich (415) pointed out, one cannot share with others qualities which he himself does not possess.

What it means to have pupils taught by a well-adjusted teacher is admirably expressed by Laycock (418). He defined as a mentally healthy teacher one who has achieved a satisfactory philosophy of life; understands her own problems; has achieved social adequacy, emotional maturity and balance; finds enjoyment in her work; and has established a good set of living habits. Such a teacher will look upon education as guidance of the whole child, recognize individual differences, interpret discipline as development of pupil self-control and self-direction, regard pupil difficulties from the standpoint of a diagnostician, and realize her responsibility as a social engineer.

Experimental verification of the fact that the teacher's personality is one factor in determining pupil progress can be found in a comparative study made by Nichols, Worthington, and Witmer (425) of children of two kindergarten schools in the same city for a one-semester period. One school was very well equipped and taught by a highly qualified teacher, while the other was poorly equipped and taught by a less capable teacher. The two groups were found to differ considerably at the close of the semester. The authors concluded that the unfavorable attitude and attention of the teacher, if it duplicates the child's home situation, is detrimental to his adjustment. They also felt that the favorable attitude of the teacher is helpful to the child's development but it cannot compensate for severe emotional deprivation at home.

Administrative Regulations and Adjustments

Administrative regulations to insure satisfactory teacher health are both state and local in nature. Approximately half of the states have definite health requirements as a basis for certification but the regulations are, in many instances, superficial and the health examinations are of a perfunctory character (411, 423). In a questionnaire study conducted by the Department of Classroom Teachers (423) about four out of five cities responding to the questionnaire reported some minimum health requirement. The most popular form of administrative adjustment for illness is the sick leave (423, 424). Sabbatical leaves, medical care, and lightening of teaching duties constitute other forms of administrative adjustments provided by various local school systems.

Suggestions for Improvement of Teachers' Mental and Physical Health

According to Hill (416) the initial step in a mental hygiene program must be the physical health of teachers and following that should be an environment free from uncertainty and worry. Closely related to these are the natural requirements of success experiences and a wholesome community life as well as the cultivation of an improved public attitude toward the teaching profession.

The majority of writers (421, 423, 426, 431, 434, 439) are of the opinion that the major administrative steps which should be taken to improve the mental and physical health of teachers are as follows: (a) teacher selection with due regard for mental and physical fitness; (b) instruction in mental hygiene by teacher-training institutions; and (c) improvement of professional life, particularly administrator-teacher relationships. For teachers in service, summer courses, teachers' clubs, reading and lectures on mental hygiene, and recreation in the open air are recommended (428, 432). These suggestions constitute convincing evidence that the problem of physical and mental health of teachers must first be attacked by our teacher-training institutions and certification agencies. The present emphasis upon personnel work in many institutions of higher learning is likely to go far in preventing the maladjusted individual from ever entering the teaching profession.

Needed Research

The extremely small number of studies conducted during the past three years on the mental and physical health of teachers, a subject which is recognized as being of major importance, suggests that more research is necessary before much can be done by way of an administrative attack upon the problem. The number of carefully planned and well-executed studies showing the number, kinds, and underlying causes of problems existing has been too limited to enable one to describe accurately the seriousness of the problem. It is possible that the mental and physical health of teachers is on the whole very good and that no new steps need be taken in regard to the matter. If this be true, it should be corroborated by means of one or more thorough and comprehensive studies carried out in representative school systems. Following this, studies should be made of the effects of teacher health upon pupil learning and personality development. Should these studies show that a serious problem exists, the necessary administrative steps, guided by research, could be taken to remedy the situation. This would involve the question of selection and training of teachers as well as the treatment of maladjustments which occur among teachers in service.

CHAPTER XI

Teachers' Salaries¹

HAZEL DAVIS

RESearch on salaries and salary scheduling during the past three years has consisted mainly of reports on status and of studies which compare variations in teachers' salaries to variations in certain other professional and economic factors. Certain issues in salary scheduling, such as the adoption of single-salary schedules, the provision of equal pay for men and women, the provision of family allowances, and the use of merit ratings as a basis for salary increments have continued to receive emphasis in magazine articles and in textbooks on school administration. References to such statements of opinion are omitted from the bibliography for this chapter, except in cases where the statements are supplemented by objective data not presented elsewhere or where the statements represent the opinions of committees or conferences.

A similar three-year summary of research on teachers' salaries appeared in June 1937 (458). A report by Goldthorpe (462) in April 1938 emphasized principles of compensation as developed by students of general government.

Reports on Salaries and Incomes of Teachers

Studies of nationwide scope—The National Education Association (475, 479, 480) and the United States Office of Education (514) have continued their biennial studies which provide basic information on salaries paid to city teachers by population groups (479) and by individual cities (480); average salaries of all teachers by states (514); average salaries of Negro teachers (475, 514); and average salaries of rural teachers (479, 514). In 1938-39 the average salaries in Group I cities (over 100,000) were as high as in 1930-31 but salaries in the smaller cities still were below the predepression levels.

Eleven thousand rural teachers cooperated in a study of economic status made by a committee of the National Education Association (473, 474). The average salary of the reporting teachers was \$867; the report on uses of income gives convincing evidence of the meager scale of living possible for the typical rural teacher. Gaumnitz (461) reported for 1935 on salaries and qualifications of some two hundred thousand rural teachers, showing trends as compared with earlier reports in a series of studies that he is making at five-year intervals. A report on economic status of some five thousand rural teachers, based on reports from individual teachers in seven states, was compiled by Gaumnitz (460). The median salary of these rural teachers was as much as \$1,000 in only one state; it was below \$700 in four states.

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 284.

State studies of teachers' salaries—State education associations in Michigan (471), Minnesota (472), Montana (508), Nebraska (498), and New York (446, 447, 488-491) made comprehensive surveys of teachers' salaries. Burke's studies (447, 491) for the New York State Teachers Association called attention to the constancy of differences in salary levels among various parts of New York State. He showed that for 60 years there has been only slight change of relationship in average salary of teachers between the rural areas and New York City, the rural being about 35 percent of the city in 1870, and 40 percent in 1930. New York suburbs remain at about 65 percent of the New York City figure; upstate metropolitan areas had risen from a little more than 45 percent in 1870 to about 60 percent in 1930.

The Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction (494) continued a series of annual studies of salaries. The most recent Pennsylvania report, like those for Michigan (471) and Minnesota (472), was based on records for individual teachers and shows the relationship of individual qualifications to amounts of salary paid. All three studies showed that size of community had more influence on average salaries than level of preparation or amount of experience. Statewide studies of qualifications and salaries of certain groups of teachers were made by Berges (442) for Montana, Irwin (467) for Kansas, and Simon (504) for Indiana.

Local studies of teachers' salaries—Although many local groups have investigated local salary problems by methods that perhaps deserve to be called research, very few of these local studies are summarized in systematic reports. Elsbree's salary study (457) for Greenwich, Connecticut, and the study by a board-of-education committee in Darien, Connecticut (452), were similar in their use of questionnaires to teachers as the basis for presenting data on uses of income and amount of dependency.

In Elizabeth, New Jersey, a research committee (443) proposed a method for resumption of salary increments, based on an elaborate analysis of the effect of the suspension of increments from 1930 thru 1937 on salaries of various groups of teachers.

Procedures and Principles in Salary Scheduling

Several early research studies on salaries presented tentative formulas for computing objectively the amounts of money which should be specified as minimum and maximum salaries in salary schedules. Recent studies have not emphasized this practice although Elsbree cited one such device in his Greenwich report (457:10). It is possible that later research may develop technics for finding precise answers to the fundamental questions on amount of salaries, the establishment of salary classes, and the distribution of salary increments. During the past three years, however, the emphasis has turned rather on the structure of salary schedules and the factors to be recognized than on the specific amounts of salary to be established.

The National Education Association published analyses of existing salary schedules for classroom teachers in 1936-37 (486), 1938-39 (483), and 1939-40 (481). Salary schedules for school principals were reported in 1936-37 (484).

Procedures followed by 43 school systems in the preparation of salary schedules were analyzed in a series of bulletins by the National Education Association (478). It was found that in 31 cities a staff committee had large responsibility in developing the schedule; the whole series of bulletins emphasized the value of staff participation. This approach is recommended also by Elsbree (456:456). Pearson's study (493) reporting the reluctance of Kansas teachers to adopt aggressive measures for salary improvement and Hill's analysis (464) of difficulties in cooperative work on salary scheduling indicated that staff participation is not invariably successful. In addition to committee service, the National Education Association report (478) described practices in collecting basic facts needed in framing a schedule, making studies of teacher status, estimating costs of proposed salary schedules, and presenting salary facts to the public. Hunter's report (465) on the cost of a new salary schedule for teachers in Hawaii illustrated a projection of salary costs thru a study of individual records on salary, position, and preparation. Sears (501) outlined six steps in the construction of a salary schedule.

Preparation as a Factor in Salary Scheduling

A continuing issue in salary scheduling is the proposal that basic classes of the schedule be determined by the level of professional preparation of the teachers rather than by the scholastic level of the children taught. The National Education Association's Committee on Equal Opportunity (475) showed that the "single-salary schedule" based on preparation rather than position was being followed in 1938-39 by 35 percent of the school systems in cities over 30,000 in population, as compared with 25 percent in 1931 and 19 percent in 1925. Berges (442) reported that 17 percent of the elementary-school teachers in Montana included in his study were planning to get high-school positions if possible, chiefly on account of the higher salary; 10 percent of the high-school teachers would prefer elementary-school teaching if salaries were equal. Oberst (492) reported that opinion among school people in Mississippi favored equal pay for elementary and secondary teachers where education, experience, and teaching load were similar.

The operation of single-salary schedules was reported by Scates (499) and by Elsbree and Sykes (459). As Scates (499) pointed out, the Cincinnati single-salary schedule, adopted in 1927, was given a lengthy study in 1936-37 and the new schedule adopted for 1937-38 continued to be of the single-salary type. Elsbree and Sykes (459) investigated the operation of 22 single-salary schedules that had been adopted ten or more years earlier. Difficulties arising during the depression years had not been inherent in

the type of schedule; adjustments had been possible to meet revenue shortages; all of the superintendents favored the continuance of the single-salary plan. Efforts have been made to secure single-salary schedules throughout Texas (495) by tying in a requirement for such a schedule with the accrediting requirements for high schools. Turrentine's series of articles (512) grew out of the Texas situation; he presented arguments in favor of single-salary schedules and quoted superintendents of schools who use and favor them.

Sex as a Factor in Salary Scheduling

The National Education Association's Committee on Equal Opportunity (475) reported that 74 percent of the 1938-39 salary schedules in cities over 30,000 in population included no scheduled salary differential on the basis of sex. The presence of a salary differential does not appear to be associated with a higher proportion of men teachers than in equal pay areas. The report showed a slight tendency for average salaries of women high-school teachers to be nearer to the level of men teachers' salaries in recent years than in predepression years. Chamberlain and Meece (449) discussed trends in the distribution of teaching positions between men and women and reviewed opinions on the issue of equal pay for men and women. B. F. Davis (453) reported on salary differences between men and women in accredited high schools in southern states in 1935-36. Anderson (440) showed that the number of women in administrative positions in Ohio had been greatly reduced from 1924 to 1936 and that salaries of women administrators were substantially lower than those of men.

Dependency as a Factor in Salary Scheduling

The Seventh International Conference on Public Education (502) recommended that special allowances proportional to their expenses should be made to teachers having family responsibilities. This recommendation reflects current practice in several European countries; such a policy continues to be rare in American school systems but is in effect in a few communities. Elsbree (457) recommended that family allowances be included in the schedule for Greenwich, Connecticut.

Cost of Living as a Factor in Salaries

The principle that salaries should be high enough to permit teachers to maintain themselves in dignity calls for a consideration of the cost of a suitable standard of living. The studies in Darien (452) and in Greenwich, Connecticut (457), used cost-of-living figures reported by teachers in appraising adequacy of local salaries. Thompson (509) summarized data on costs of living of Negro teachers and reported that differences between whites and Negroes in costs of living were not sufficient to justify the great differences in salaries between white and Negro teachers. Turner (511) described the salary plan for municipal employees

in St. Paul, Minnesota, whereby salary rates are adjusted upward or downward to recognize fluctuations in level of cost of living.

Elsbree (456) traced the history of teachers' salaries in relation to the social and economic life of America since the Colonial period. He reported that, in spite of salary reductions during the depression, teachers as a whole were enjoying a more favorable economic status in 1937 than at any time in the history of the profession (456:434). Several theses presented figures for states or parts of states on the relationship of teachers' salaries to cost of living and to other economic factors. Shambach (503) found a high correlation between salaries of teachers and true valuation of taxable property in 30 school districts in Pennsylvania; but Turner (510) reported for eight Louisiana parishes that the level of salaries paid teachers bore no definite relationship to the taxpaying ability of the parish. Carr (448), Dillon (455), and Tweedy (513) compared salary trends with trends in costs of living during the depression years. Ireland's study (466) of salary data, cost of living, and tenure for 4,445 teachers in six large Ohio cities covered the period from 1920-21 thru 1937-38. He found that in unfavorable years all teachers tended to be reduced to a common level and that less regard was paid to experience, training, and skill in teaching. The relation of teachers' salaries to costs of living was traced in studies by state education associations in New York (489) and Wisconsin (515). Redman (496) reviewed trends of teachers' salaries during the Civil War and the World War. In each case, cost of living rose and teachers' real wages fell in the war period. In the post-war stabilization, however, real wages of teachers reached higher levels than had prevailed earlier.

Twelve-Month Plan of Paying Teachers' Salaries

A striking increase in the use of the twelve-month rather than the ten-month basis of paying teachers was reported by the National Education Association (485). In 1931 only 15 percent of city school systems used the twelve-month plan; by 1938-39, 39 percent were using it. Advantages and disadvantages of paying teachers on the twelve-month basis were listed and recommendations for administration of such a plan were made. Staffelbach (506) reported that 24 percent of the nearly three thousand school districts in California were using the twelve-month plan in 1938.

Minimum-Salary Laws

As one means of guaranteeing a minimum program of educational opportunity in all localities, minimum salaries for teachers are set by law in nearly half of the states. These statutes were summarized in 1937 by the Committee on Tenure of the National Education Association (476) and by H. Davis (454), and in 1939 by the Research Division of the National Education Association (477). State-guaranteed minimum-salary schedules were mandated in Delaware, Indiana, Maryland, North Carolina,

and West Virginia. State-aided schedules for city teachers were provided in New York and Pennsylvania. In sixteen other states the minimum state-aided schedule was available at the option of the locality, or the legal minimum was a flat amount rather than a schedule with guaranteed increments. The following were suggested as essential features of a minimum-salary law (476:4):

1. A minimum-salary law should be statewide in its scope; to be effective where needed most, no exceptions should be permitted.
2. Local districts should be entirely free to exceed the state minimum and by administrative policy should be encouraged to do so.
3. Training and experience should be recognized in the state minimum-salary standards as bases for variation in teachers' salaries.
4. A proper plan of state school support greatly assists in the maintenance of defensible minimum-salary standards.
5. The method of enforcement should be stated in the law.

Factual analyses of the need for state minimum-salary standards were made for California by Staffelbach (505), for Louisiana by the State Department of Education (469), for Maryland by a committee of superintendents headed by Broome (445), and for Montana by the State Education Association (508). Hannah (463) reported on the defective operation of the minimum-salary law in Colorado in certain counties where local funds were inadequate to meet the mandatory state minimum. The Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction (494) showed distributions of salaries paid in relation to the state-guaranteed minimum schedule.

Relationship of Teachers' Salaries to Certain Factors

A large proportion of the research on salaries carried on in colleges and universities has consisted of analytical comparisons of salary trends or salary levels with related economic and professional factors.

Clark and others (451) gave estimated figures for the period 1920-36 on estimated life earnings and average annual earnings in 16 professions and occupations, including public school teaching, which was eleventh in rank. The order was as follows: (a) medicine, (b) law, (c) dentistry, (d) engineering, (e) architecture, (f) college teaching, (g) social work, (h) journalism, (i) ministry, (j) library work, (k) public school teaching, (l) skilled trades, (m) nursing, (n) unskilled labor, (o) farming, and (p) farm labor. McPherson (31) found that average salaries of Indiana teachers were lower than median salaries in occupations open to prospective teachers in industries and professions. In justification of relatively high salaries of teachers in New York State, Burke (446) pointed out that earnings in other occupations are higher in New York State than elsewhere. A yearbook of the John Dewey Society (468) discussed the economic status of teaching in relation to the economic system of the nation, and pointed out that: "There can be no adequate security for teachers apart from the security of all other workers in society" (29:172).

Scott and Reed (500) studied the causes of turnover of teachers in a

group of Nebraska high schools significantly higher in average turnover than was typical for the state. Of the 287 teachers who changed positions, 57.5 percent did so for reasons related to salary. The numbers leaving for salary reasons were proportionately higher in small schools of less than 50 pupils than in larger schools.

Roux (497) and Andrews (441) both found that higher salaries were paid to teachers with higher amounts of preparation. The relationship of salary to residence of teacher was studied by A. G. Clark (450) and Roux (497), both of whom found a tendency for higher salaries to be paid to the teachers who lived in the communities where they taught. Stafford (507) observed low correlations between salaries, experience, and education in two Colorado counties, finding that the minimum-salary law was largely influential in determining salaries. A study of the salaries of high-school teachers in Tennessee counties as related to the ratings of the high schools by the state department of education was made by Brock (447). He found that higher salaries tended to be associated with higher rank of the schools.

CHAPTER XII

Teacher Tenure¹

CECIL W. SCOTT

RECENT RESEARCH in the field of teacher tenure has mainly followed previously established patterns. Findings have tended to confirm established conclusions and to shed but little new light on such basic problems as turnover causes, administration of the probationary period under indefinite tenure laws, and the effects of such statutes upon the professional attitudes, practices, and efficiency of teachers. Of the 22 studies included in this survey, eight were made by or under the auspices of the Committee on Tenure of the National Education Association. Researches issued by this Committee are occasionally based on inadequate data, but they are practically free of the bias which once was characteristic of National Education Association tenure publications.

Length of Tenure

The National Education Association (523) reported that in 1938 the median tenure of city school superintendents and principals in one position was six years, and that during the preceding 15 years the typical county superintendent stayed in office 4.6 years. Professional records for city and county superintendents for the years 1924-38, inclusive, were obtained from the *Educational Directory* issued annually by the United States Office of Education. Tenure data for principals were secured from 960 elementary- and 1,500 high-school principals by means of a questionnaire. This study, which also included a summary of state laws governing the tenure of administrators, seemed to show a positive relationship between the tenure of city superintendents and principals and both the size of district and the existence of laws designed to safeguard tenure.

Another National Education Association investigation (524) traced the employment of 936 teacher-training graduates of the classes of 1933 from the state universities and a sampling of 26 teachers colleges in 12 states. At the end of the fifth year after graduation 22 percent had had no public school teaching experience and only 52 percent had taught all five years in the public schools. Average tenure in one system of those who had taught was three years, and mobility was less marked in states having statewide indefinite tenure than in states where teachers were unprotected.

The Illinois Legislative Council (520) reported that as of 1937-38 the average length of tenure in the same district was 13.5 years for Chicago teachers and 3.2 years for all other teachers in the state. Duration of service was decidedly greater in cities than in rural districts and it increased steadily from the smallest to the largest communities. Data presented also

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 288.

indicated that length of service in the same district in downstate Illinois seemed to have increased during the period 1913-38.

Judd (522) found that the average years of service of 11,220 teachers in New York State, exclusive of New York City, at the time of death, retirement, or withdrawal was 17.6, 35.3, and 4.6, respectively. For the entire group the average was 12.6 years. Ray (533) studied the relationship between certain factors and length of tenure in the profession of 1,024 degree graduates of North Texas State Teachers College between 1919 and 1931, using data obtained from college bulletins and records. His most important findings were that graduates who were older at the time of college entrance and those who became administrators tended to have longer tenure.

Turnover Rates and Causes

In an effort to determine whether a relationship existed between trustee turnover and teacher turnover in Indiana township schools, Hedge (518) analyzed data obtained from the Indiana school directories for the school years 1933-34 and 1934-35 for 2,921 schools employing approximately 6,750 elementary- and 3,900 high-school teachers. He found that in the second year, which followed the trustee elections, turnover increased markedly and that increases were least frequent in districts where trustees were reelected, next least frequent where trustees changed but the politics did not, and most common in districts where both trustees and the politics changed.

Bogar's typical questionnaire study (516) of gross turnover between the school years 1936-37 and 1937-38 among Nebraska public school teachers represented 442 schools, exclusive of one-room schools and the Omaha and Lincoln systems, and 4,821 teachers. Main findings were: (a) the percent of turnover for all teachers was 28; (b) turnover varied inversely with the size of system; (c) high-school teachers were decidedly less stable than any other group; (d) approximately three-fourths of all transiency was voluntary; and (e) the continuing contract law which became effective in 1937-38 would have prevented, had it been effective in 1936-37, only a negligible percent of turnover. On the basis of a study of salary and gross turnover trends for all educational workers in the public secondary schools of Nebraska for three periods of three years each, beginning 1925-26 and ending 1937-38, Reed (534) concluded that median salaries and turnover rates were positively related. Data for this study were secured from the *Nebraska Educational Directory*.

By means of questionnaires, Tape (536) collected information from 1,834 teachers in 25 selected counties and from the school commissioners (i.e., superintendents, in these counties) especially concerning reasons why one-room rural school teachers in Michigan leave their positions. Teachers new to their positions in 1930-31 reported reasons why their predecessors withdrew, why they left their former positions if they taught in 1929-30,

and they supplied biographical, professional, and experiential information concerning themselves. Commissioners furnished reports concerning teacher withdrawals for both 1929-30 and 1930-31 and also rated turnover teachers on general efficiency. An inquiry relative to turnover for 1936-37 was made of the commissioners in the same counties and since turnover rates and causes reported were similar to those reported earlier, it was assumed no significant differences had developed. In 1929-30 approximately 52 percent of the teachers in the counties studied withdrew from their positions and 35 percent withdrew in 1930-31. A greater number of teachers withdrew in 1929-30 to attend college, to secure a better position, or to get married. Other important findings were: (a) teachers of rural birth and rearing withdrew as frequently as other teachers; (b) amount of professional training and type of professional school attended were not significantly related to turnover; (c) teachers trained for secondary work moved more than those trained for elementary work; (d) factors associated with involuntary withdrawal were youth, first teaching position, first year in present position, and distance from home; and (e) the most important causes of voluntary turnover were desire to be nearer home, to secure a more desirable school, or to get a higher salary.

Ireland (521) established seven standards for determining the need of Connecticut for a civil service law for educational employees and measured this need largely on the basis of questionnaire returns. According to one standard, need would be evident if any considerable number of teachers were dismissed unfairly during the four-year period, 1931-35. Civil service was defined as (a) establishment of merit as an important criterion for entrance into and promotion and retention in service; (b) protection of satisfactory teachers in their positions; and (c) provision of pensions. Reactions to a plan proposed by the state teachers association, which, because Connecticut already had a pension system, referred particularly to the first two aspects of civil service, were secured from 66 school superintendents, 4,262 teachers, 181 schoolboard members, and a few laymen. The last named group was not adequately represented and schoolboard members probably were not. Ireland concluded that need for a civil service law of the type proposed was demonstrated.

Some sources from which opposition to indefinite tenure legislation might be expected were considered in a National Education Association study (525) which compiled the opinions of 100 schoolboard members and 500 school superintendents on the principles and features of indefinite tenure. Eighty-four percent of the superintendents approved in general of indefinite tenure as compared to 45 percent of the schoolboard members. The most critical issues revealed appeared to be: (a) the probationary period; (b) status of the married woman teacher; and (c) continued professional improvement of teachers who attain tenure protection.

In a study of teacher supply and demand as related to Section 5,505 of the California School Code, which terminates tenure protection of educa-

tional employees at age sixty-five and which became effective in 1937-38, Hubbard (519) found that automatic dismissal of teachers at age sixty-five was favored by 62 percent of the districts which had formally adopted dismissal policies. These districts employed 65 percent of all teachers serving indefinite tenure districts. City elementary, city high-school, and unified district boards generally favored the automatic dismissal of teachers; a majority of union high-school districts were inclined to differentiate between efficient and inefficient teachers eligible for dismissal on the basis of age. Data concerning existent or expected board policies were obtained by questionnaire from districts which represented 95 percent of both the A.D.A. and the teachers of tenure districts.

Indefinite Tenure Laws

A comprehensive report on the status of teacher tenure issued by the National Education Association (530) set forth (a) the position of the Association on tenure; (b) provisions of existing state laws governing tenure; (c) local tenure regulations; and (d) a digest of research studies on the legal aspects of tenure. Three indefinite tenure laws and one continuing contract statute were analyzed in detail to illustrate several types of tenure protection. Another National Education Association report (526) presented a careful analysis of indefinite tenure legislation of which court decisions were an important feature.

Scott (535) critically evaluated the Pennsylvania indefinite tenure law and termed it praiseworthy as a legal and as a social security instrument, but stated that educationally its only clear advantage was that it prevents political dismissals. He concluded (a) that the statute aggravated the old problems of reduction of the number of administrative units, elimination of inefficient small schools, and employment of professionally trained teachers for all the schools; and (b) that potential new problems inhered in the provisions of the law regarding demotions, abolition of positions, and the appeal rights of dismissed teachers.

Cole (517) made a general survey of the tenure situation in the United States giving special attention to the Indiana indefinite tenure law. His analysis and evaluation, which followed traditional patterns and gave the Indiana statute a high rating, would have been improved by inclusion of more evidence on the operation of the law. Cole reported that during the first ten years' existence of the statute, 21 cases of appeals from dismissal were adjudicated by the appellate courts of Indiana and that 12 of the final decisions favored the teachers involved.

Publication of annual reviews of court decisions affecting teacher tenure decided by state appellate courts was continued by the National Education Association (527, 528, 529). Each review contained a digest of findings and presented abstracts of all tenure cases. Thirteen of both the 36 cases which occurred in 1936 and the 32 which arose in 1937, and 30 of the 52 which developed in 1938 were decided in favor of the teachers involved.

Interpretations of the New York indefinite tenure statute as rendered by the commissioner of education and the courts were published by the University of the State of New York (531). Citations are from the entire period of existence of the law and cover all important types of cases which have arisen. Thiel (537) relied heavily on court decisions in his study of teachers' rights under indefinite tenure laws. Quaintance (532) developed a model tenure law on the basis of a thorough study of the legal aspects of indefinite tenure. The report of his research comprised (a) a discussion of present indefinite tenure laws; (b) a review of court decisions from 1931 through 1937; (c) a discussion of standards used in drafting the law; and (d) the model statute.

Further information concerning research on the legal features of teacher tenure appears in Chapter XIV.

CHAPTER XIII

Pensions and Retirement Pay¹

LEO M. CHAMBERLAIN

THE LIMITS OF THIS REVIEW are rather clearly defined. For the most part the studies covered have dealt with local and state retirement systems in the United States, provisions for old-age annuities in American institutions of higher learning, and investigations of foreign retirement plans reported by American writers. In a few cases the researches have covered the more general problem of security for teachers and not infrequently teacher retirement has been studied in its relationships to the Social Security Act. This review brings down to date corresponding summaries on pensions and retirement pay for previous periods. (*Review of Educational Research* for April 1931; June 1934; and June 1937.)

The Development of Teacher Retirement

The Research Division of the National Education Association (559) summarized the evolution of teacher-retirement systems. Three periods were discernible: (a) the first, beginning in 1869, characterized by assurance and mutual-aid associations; (b) the second, starting about 1894, a period of legislative activity wherein too frequently sound retirement principles were disregarded; and (c) the period from 1920 to the present, characterized by legislation designed to improve existing systems and to establish new plans on a sound actuarial basis. The establishment of several local systems was followed by the first voluntary statewide plan in New Jersey in 1896. "Between 1894 and 1920 both local and statewide systems were being established, but from 1904 on, statewide systems were, comparatively speaking, on the ascendancy" (559:94). Periods of greatest activity have been from 1913 to 1915, when thirteen state systems and eighteen local systems were established, and during the last few years when the general emphasis on social security has brought renewed interest in the problem of teacher retirement. Housman (548) also outlined the history of the teacher retirement movement with emphasis on the evolution of the New Jersey System.

Current legislation on teacher welfare and retirement was reviewed by the Research Division of the National Education Association (557, 558, 560). In 1935, forty-seven legislatures met and retirement legislation was enacted in three states; in 1936, nine legislatures met and retirement legislation was enacted in six states; and in 1937, forty-four legislatures met and retirement legislation was considered in twenty-nine states. In nine of the twenty-nine states the retirement proposals were defeated; in three states commissions were created to study the problem; and in seventeen states retirement legislation was passed. Six of these seventeen laws created systems in states with no previous legislation; three completely revised

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 289.

existing legislation; and eight changed or extended the provisions of existing systems. Retirement bills were considered in only two or three states in 1938. In one case provision was made for a new statewide system. During 1939 more than thirty bills dealing with teacher retirement were considered. Four states that had not previously had statewide systems enacted legislation providing for such plans. For one of them, however, no appropriation was made, and for at least two of the others the financial provisions appeared inadequate.

The Present Status of Teacher Retirement

A publication entitled *Analysis of the Statutory Provisions for State Teachers Retirement Systems* (561) included a summary of the current status of teacher retirement. From this investigation and several others (549, 557, 558, 559, 560) bearing on the point, it appeared at the close of the 1939 legislative year that there were thirty-three states in which some provision had been made for statewide systems. In three states—Arizona, New Mexico, and Rhode Island—the legislation provided for pension plans. In the remaining thirty states joint contributory systems had been established. Recent legislation, however, had not in all cases been accompanied by the appropriations necessary to place the systems on a sound reserve basis. Two states were without appropriations in any amount, and in two or three more the sums appeared inadequate. Teacher retirement systems were in operation, in addition, in the Canal Zone, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico.

The retirement system of Washington, D. C., was authorized by legislative act of Congress. In *Teacher Retirement and Social Security* (559) other local teacher retirement systems were classified as follows: (a) those operated within but independently of a statewide system—twenty-one systems in thirteen states; (b) those based on a state law providing for teacher retirement in a certain class of community—three systems in three different states; and (c) local systems based on general permissive legislation—thirty-two systems in eleven states.

According to the same study (559) approximately 65 percent of the teachers in the United States were protected by some kind of a state or local retirement system in 1937. About 60 percent were members of joint contributory plans, less than 1 percent were in noncontributory pension plans, and about 4.5 percent were in systems maintained by teachers without assistance from public funds. The Iowa State Planning Board indicated that by 1938 almost three-fourths of the 900,000 teachers in elementary and secondary schools were working within the jurisdiction of a retirement system (549). More than half of these teachers were employed in states having statewide retirement systems.

Characteristics of Retirement Systems

The principles that should be observed in the establishment of a retirement system were stated in several studies that appeared during the last

three years (539, 554, 555, 559). As these were in all cases essentially the same as those given in two previous reviews (*Review of Educational Research* for April 1931 and June 1934) they were not included in this summary.

The Department of Classroom Teachers of the National Education Association (554) listed the health values of a teacher retirement system as (a) relief from worry and fear because of the assurance of a regular though modest income in old age; and (b) care in case of retirement for disability. The National Council on Teacher Retirement (555) stated that the justification for a retirement system was primarily that of school efficiency and an actual saving on the part of the public. Samuelson (567) enumerated the following benefits of a retirement system to the schools: (a) reduced turnover and consequent stabilization of the profession; (b) improved morale of the teaching staff; (c) the profession made more attractive to young people; and (d) protection of children from incompetent teachers. To the public the benefits included the greater dividends on the school investment and the easier dismissal of the unfit. Allen (539) also summarized the benefits of a retirement system to both the teacher and the public and reviewed the arguments that have been advanced for teacher retirement by the National Education Association. In contrast to the prevailing opinion in favor of existing retirement practices, Sowers (569) argued that old age is relative and that arbitrary retirement is inadvisable. He suggested instead a change-of-occupation plan whereby teachers may be relieved of teaching duties and assigned to special work that would be a profit to the school.

The National Council on Teacher Retirement (555) proposed and answered fourteen questions dealing with the establishment of a sound teacher-retirement system. The same organization, working in cooperation with the Research Division of the National Education Association (561), analyzed the statutory provisions for state retirement systems. Similar analyses appeared in *Teacher Retirement Systems and Social Security* (559) and in studies by the Iowa State Planning Board (549) and the Bureau of School Service of the University of Kentucky (550). The principal facts revealed by these investigations were as follows:

1. Joint-contributory systems were of two main types—reserve plan and cash disbursement plan. Twenty-one systems operated on a reserve basis.
2. Most plans provided for actuarial valuations at stated intervals—most frequently every year or every five years.
3. Retirement boards ranged in membership from three to twelve. Five and seven were the most frequent memberships. Teacher representation ranged from about 17 percent to 100 percent of the membership.
4. In seventeen of twenty-four states the administrative expense was paid out of state funds. Three states shared the expense about equally with the teachers. In three states the teachers paid the entire cost and in one state the local boards defrayed the cost.
5. Practically all systems provided for some restrictions on investments of funds. Common procedures were to limit investments to those permitted by law to savings banks or to insurance companies.

6. Most systems provided for compulsory membership for new teachers and optional membership for those employed prior to the enactment of the law. A few, however, made membership compulsory for "present" teachers.
7. Systems varied a great deal with respect to the types of positions covered. The greater part of the membership was made up of certificated employees of public elementary and secondary schools. In some systems membership included noncertificated employees, members of the staffs of state departments, and the professional members of the staffs of state colleges.
8. There was little uniformity in the manner in which the employer's contribution was stated. In some cases the amount was specified in one form or another and in others it was "the amount necessary." The aim in most cases was apparently to have the state assume reasonable responsibility for prior service benefits and provide a pension equal to the annuity provided by the teacher's deposits.
9. Usually a portion of the salary of each member was deducted from each payroll and forwarded as a total from the local district to the retirement board. With one exception deductions were made monthly. In thirteen of twenty-seven systems the contribution was stated in terms of a percent of salary. In seven systems the law provided that the member's contribution would be such an amount or percent as determined by an actuary.
10. The prevailing practice was to guarantee the return of all deposits with interest in the case of withdrawal from the profession or death before retirement. There were, however, a number of variations from this practice.
11. Thirteen of twenty-seven systems made no provision for compulsory retirement. In twelve of the remaining fourteen the age for compulsory retirement was placed at seventy.
12. The total service requirement ranged from fifteen to forty years, with thirty the most common number. Twenty-one of twenty-seven systems included some service requirement. The number of years allowed for service outside of the state ranged from five to fifteen, with ten the most common figure.
13. Voluntary retirement was based on service alone in some systems; in others on age alone, or age in conjunction with a service requirement. The minimum age for voluntary retirement ranged from fifty to sixty-five, with sixty the most common figure. The required years of service in the state ranged from ten to thirty. From five to ten years of service immediately preceding retirement was a common requirement.
14. Most systems offered the member some option in the manner in which retirement benefits were paid.
15. That phase of the law dealing with the superannuation or service retirement allowance most frequently provided for an annuity actuarially equivalent to the teacher's deposits, plus a pension from the state. "A majority of the statewide annuity systems are planned to provide annuities of approximately one-half the average annual salaries earned during the late years of teaching service" (549: 153).
16. The service requirement for disability retirement ranged from five to thirty years, with ten the most common figure. Sixteen of twenty-seven systems required a periodical medical examination after retirement for disability.
17. Five of twenty-seven systems guaranteed, without reservations, the benefits stated in the law. Approximately that many more had restricted guarantees of one type or another.

The principal features of forty-six local teacher retirement systems are summarized in *Teacher Retirement Systems and Social Security* (559).

Several writers have reviewed the characteristics of particular state systems: Housman (548) for New Jersey; Morton (552, 553) for Ohio; Buck (540) for Iowa; and Buck (538), Gillespie (546), and Burke (541) for New York. Some of the more important aspects of the Wisconsin system

were set forth in an issue of *School and Society* (570). Parmelee (563) analyzed the provisions for teacher retirement in the private schools of Philadelphia, and O'Keefe (562) outlined the provisions of the Ohio state retirement system for noneducational employees. This system was designed to cover custodians, attendance officers, school doctors and nurses, librarians, cafeteria employees, maintenance men, engineers, and clerks of boards of education, and was described as the first state retirement plan in the United States for such employees. Allen (539) summarized the dangers faced by a retirement system with large reserves as follows: (a) teachers may urge more liberal allowances or seek reductions in contributions; (b) the legislature may attempt to reduce or eliminate the state's contribution; (c) losses may result from poor investments; and (d) the retirement of employees under disability or optional provisions, while still doing effective work, may discredit the system.

Statistics on Teacher Retirement Systems

The Research Division of the National Education Association (559) presented the first comprehensive statistics on active teacher retirement systems. Accumulated enrolments for state systems ranged from 873 to 165,364 and in local systems from 15 to 50,458. Active memberships in state systems, on the average, totaled approximately one-half of accumulated enrolments. Terminated memberships, which were about 50 percent of accumulated enrolments, were distributed as follows: (a) withdrawal, 89 percent; (b) death, 3 percent; and (c) retirement, 8 percent. On the average, 86 percent of retirements in state systems were for superannuation, and about 14 percent for disability. For the last fiscal year for which reports were made the proportions of terminated memberships for death and retirement were somewhat higher. With one exception "no system among either states or cities reported fewer than half of all terminations due to withdrawal. In many systems the proportion approached or exceeded 90 percent" (559:112).

Among state systems, the average annual allowance paid for all superannuation or service retirements ranged from \$295 to \$1,413. The median of the averages was approximately \$630. Averages for retirements during the last fiscal year reported were approximately the same. Average allowances for disability retirements in state systems ranged from \$203 to \$835, with a median of about \$400.

Ledger assets of state systems ranged from about \$13,000 for a state with a cash disbursement plan to more than \$120,000,000 for a plan operated on a reserve basis. The assets of the New York City system exceeded those of the largest state system by about \$9,000,000. Eighteen state systems reported a combined income of \$64,000,000, while the income of twenty city systems totaled about \$36,000,000 for the year. The principal purposes for which funds were expended were retirement allowances, refunds of deposits to teachers who withdrew from active service, payment of teachers' deposits to their heirs in event of death, administrative costs,

and reimbursements for losses on investments. Withdrawals accounted for one-third or more of all disbursements in many systems.

In state systems administrative expenses per active member ranged from 41 cents to \$2.87. The median for sixteen systems was about \$1.40. "Among the state systems, administrative costs ranged from about 1 percent to 6 percent of the annual disbursements. In some of the city systems, expenditures for administration represented slightly larger percents of the total disbursement than was true of any state system" (559:123).

Hoff (547) studied the Minnesota and Wisconsin state systems and three city systems in these states. Among his conclusions were the following: (a) annuities paid and available were grossly inadequate; (b) amounts available on retirement were less than half of the minimum needs as estimated by teachers; (c) the possible income from sources other than the annuity was very small—on the average about \$202 a year for men and \$97 for women; (d) although less than a majority, a larger portion of respondents favored a compulsory retirement age than opposed it; (e) a majority of annuitants were content that retirement was the best adjustment for them in spite of inadequate annuities; (f) there was a significant difference between the economic needs of men and women, with the number of dependents reported by men about three times the number reported by women; (g) the loss of creditable service and money due to the non-reciprocal relationships between retirement systems amounts to detrimental proportions; and (h) assets acquired by teachers throughout their life of service were relatively small, on the average amounting to less than the value of a modest home.

Teacher Retirement and Social Security

Burke (541) discussed retirement as a basis for a complete economic security program. He suggested that the main problems of the teacher without dependents are disability and unemployment. The moral risk in disability insurance, group insurance against temporary disability, types of insurance policies, and the characteristics of renewable term insurance were other topics considered. Hoff (547) recommended that provisions for temporary disability benefits should be effected in coordination with insurance against old age and permanent disability plans.

The Research Division of the National Education Association (559) summarized the provisions for retirement in a number of occupations. "Before the Social Security Act was passed considerable progress had been made in providing retirement benefits for various occupations. . . . In 1931 over one hundred thousand industrial workers were receiving annual pensions averaging about \$730. Trade union plans offered some old-age security to about twenty thousand retired workers. Thirty-two thousand ministers in 1935 were receiving an average of \$1,000 per year. In 1935 nearly fifty thousand former federal employees were receiving on the average \$988 per year" (559).

The Social Security Act in its relation to teacher retirement was also

reviewed by the Research Division of the National Education Association (559). It was pointed out that the federal legislation contained provisions relating to (a) grants to states for old-age assistance; (b) federal old-age benefits; (c) grants to states for unemployment compensation administration; (d) grants to states for aid to dependent children; (e) grants to states for maternal and child welfare; (f) public health work; and (g) grants to states for aid to the blind. The first two aspects of this legislation were described in some detail.

It was shown that teachers as individuals, if they meet the requirements, are entitled to benefits under the grants to states for old-age assistance. On the other hand, teachers were among the twenty million gainfully employed workers of the country not covered by federal old-age benefits, except as their earnings outside of teaching may total \$2,000 or more over a period of at least five calendar years. It seemed that there is little likelihood that the federal government could apply social security taxes to governmental functions of states without their consent. However, there is the possibility that legislation might be enacted "which would permit each state to provide for the inclusion of state and local government employees under some federally administered old-age pension system" (559:142).

An analysis of hypothetical cases indicated that benefits under the Social Security Act, though provision might thus be made for all teachers, would be less than under many teacher retirement systems. On the other hand, "benefits in states where retirement systems do not exist would be something in place of nothing. Also, it may be easier to obtain an amendment to the federal law than it will be to convince legislatures in nearly half of the states that the old age of teachers should be properly safeguarded" (21:143).

The Legal Status of Teacher Retirement

In the *Sixth* and *Seventh Yearbooks of School Law* (544, 545) Garber reviewed court opinions and decisions relating to teacher retirement. "It has repeatedly been held by courts of last resort that providing for retirement pay to public school teachers is a proper function in aid of free education" (544:26). Except when paid out of a fund to which the recipient has contributed under an agreement voluntarily entered into, pensions were considered as gifts for services which have previously been rendered, with the members having no vested rights in the fund. It was held that a legislature, in consideration of its authority to create retirement funds, has the power to provide for the administration of such funds. However, one court in an advisory opinion stated the belief that the private naming and appointment of members of a retirement board presents a grave question, although there should be no objection to having such board members appointed by some public official from among a list of nominees furnished by the retirement members. Other decisions were reviewed covering the effect of a withdrawal from a retirement fund, the definition of a "new" teacher, the classification of teachers for purposes of retirement, the effect

of failure to pay into the retirement fund, the computing of years of teaching service, the date retirement becomes effective, the teacher's remedy for dismissal just previous to retirement, and the investment of funds.

Rosenfield (565) reviewed court opinions and decisions affecting the operation of the retirement system of New York City. Housman (548) summarized the opinions of attorney generals relating to the New Jersey retirement plan, and in a series of questions and answers presented the legal evidence respecting the constitutionality of pension legislation for teachers.

In a memorandum (556) issued in 1939, the Research Division of the National Education Association reviewed the problem of the conflict between tenure and retirement laws. In three states provision had been made in the tenure law for a maximum age beyond which the protection ceases. Woods (38) emphasized the importance of coordinating tenure and retirement legislation.

Retirement in Colleges and Universities

Flanagan (543) surveyed the history of pensions and group life insurance in colleges and universities and summarized current security provisions for college staffs. He found that plans for old-age protection for college teachers fall, in general, into six classifications: (a) group annuities administered by commercial insurance companies; (b) the Carnegie free pensions; (c) plans operated in cooperation with the Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association; (d) state teacher retirement systems which include faculty members of state institutions; (e) church pensions; and (f) miscellaneous plans administered by individual institutions. Approximately 32 percent of 152 publicly controlled universities and colleges were found to have some plan of meeting the retirement problem, while 28 percent of 369 privately controlled institutions were similarly classified. About 33 percent of all college retirement plans were operating in cooperation with the Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association and 29 percent were parts of state or city retirement systems. Flanagan concluded his study with a discussion of sixteen fundamental principles of a comprehensive program of insurance and annuities for college staffs.

Wilcox (574) considered current social security legislation as it affects or may affect the college professor. The implications for four situations were reviewed: (a) the state or municipal institution; (b) the private institution with no retirement plan; (c) the private institution with a retirement plan covering only a part of its personnel; and (d) the private institution with a retirement plan giving complete coverage. He concluded that, on the whole, the extension of the old-age insurance plan to colleges and universities is to be desired, but that the extension of unemployment insurance would necessitate sacrifices not warranted by the benefits obtainable. Robbins (564) also reported on the application of social security to colleges and universities.

Savage (568) summarized the facts about the completed lives of 1,280 beneficiaries of the Carnegie Foundation, and the Association of American Colleges (542) presented an outline of the federated superannuation system for universities in Great Britain. At the close of 1935 the British scheme covered 7,026 staff members in 151 institutions. Ruediger (566) reported on the opinions of eighteen professors concerning current retirement practices in institutions of higher learning, and McDonald (551) considered the problem of retirement allowances in colleges under four heads: (a) the growing dominance of older age groups; (b) the growth of pensions in American business; (c) the growth of retirement plans in the teaching profession; and (d) a practical plan for the non-faculty group.

Teacher Retirement in Other Countries

The state systems of teachers pensions in England were described by Swift (571, 572) in two articles. Noteworthy features of the British systems were summarized as follows: (a) they cover institutions of every type and level; (b) they include teachers not only of public institutions but of church and private schools, even schools conducted for profit; (c) they are contributory systems; (d) they are national in scope; (e) participation is compulsory for teachers employed in state-aided institutions; and (f) pensions are in every case determined on the basis of years of service and salary received. It was suggested that there is need in the United States for a nationwide superannuation plan.

Swift (573) also outlined the German plan for the pensioning of elementary teachers. A decree of 1937 established a pension system for all Reich officials, including teachers, the main provisions of which corresponded to the previous Prussian plan. In 1933, about 16 percent of the expenditures for public elementary schools for all personnel and nonpersonnel costs were disbursed as pension and welfare grants.

CHAPTER XIV

Legal Status of Teachers¹

J. FREDERICK WELTZIN

IT APPEARED APPARENT from a review of the literature concerning the legal status of the public school teacher that there is a growing recognition of the importance of the law in determining and promoting the professional position and welfare of the personnel of the American school system. Although no extensive general treatise on the law pertaining to the public school teacher has appeared during the last three years many aspects of the problem have been studied. Chambers and others (596) brought together a list of the problems in educational law, a number of which pertain to the status of teachers. The Research Division of the National Education Association made an interesting study comparing the statutory status of six other professions with teaching (651), surveying provisions for admission, provisions for expulsion and revocation of licenses, and studying a number of cases of removal. Legislative provisions for teacher welfare were brought together in a helpful way in the form of a chart (663).

General résumés of legislation are referred to in the following section. Similar general studies of court decisions have appeared during the period (597, 612) and more specific reviews of this kind are referred to in subsequent sections. A portion of a doctoral dissertation by Campbell (589) considered the influence of court decisions in Kentucky on the legal status of teachers in that state. *Nation's Schools, Clearing House, Educational Law and Administration*, and the *American School Board Journal* conduct regular school law sections which frequently contain material on the legal status of teachers. Former issues of this publication include reviews by Anderson (578), Edwards (609), and Chambers (593). The most important sources of data on the teachers' legal position are the appropriate chapters in the *Yearbooks of School Law* (600).

General Résumés of Legislation

Digests and commentaries on current educational legislation have appeared with regularity. These studies usually contain material dealing with statutes passed or projected concerning various phases of the teacher's legal status. The United States Office of Education has been active in this area (627), digests of educational measures before Congress (623, 624) as well as reviews of state legislative action (625, 626) having been made by Keesecker. The Research Division of the National Education Association has reviewed state school legislation from time to time (644, 645, 646, 650, 654), including summarizations of laws concerning such matters as tenure, retirement, minimum salaries, contracts, and oaths. Chambers has

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 290.

published reviews of this sort in *Nation's Schools* (594, 595, 596, 597) which not only report legislation but also contain commentaries on it.

Legal Aspects of Teacher-Training Certification and Employment

Allen (576) studied the legal principles governing practice teaching, showing that twenty-two states provide contractual arrangements for practice teaching, following four general plans or types. The administration of teacher certification as a legal responsibility of the state was considered in a study of the development of state programs of certification by Frazier (611) which was also printed as a bulletin of the United States Office of Education. Bowers developed a set of ten principles which he felt would act as safeguards to insure the purposes of teacher certification, most of which would apply to the legal basis of certification though the principles themselves are not the product of legal research (584). The *Fifth, Sixth and Seventh Yearbooks of School Law* contain reviews of current court decisions on certification by Anderson (579) and Cooke (603, 604). The legal importance of the certificate is also discussed by Cooke in a recent textbook (601). Chambers (591) described recent trends in certification legislation and litigation, concluding that the courts appear to adhere to their function of interpreting the intent of the legislature in the matter of licensing teachers and emphasizing the responsibility of educators in guiding the reconstruction of educational statutes. Certification laws related to the specific field of commercial education were considered by Shover (662).

An important piece of research was conducted into the subject of the renewal of expired certificates or eligibility lists by Rosenfield (657). He found that contrary to general belief most of the states reject the philosophy expressed in certain recent New York and Kentucky cases and permit the extension of certificates and eligibility lists subsequent to their expiration. Anderson (579) and Cooke (603, 604) digested current court decisions pertaining to the eligibility, nomination, and appointment of teachers. Since valid rules and regulations of boards of education have the force of, and are in fact, statutes, an analysis of such bylaws as affect the selection and employment of teachers constitutes an important contribution to the literature on this subject (634).

Teachers' Oaths

Although during the early part of the period under consideration a considerable volume of nonlegal literature concerning this subject appeared in the periodicals, little research can be recorded. In 1937 the American Civil Liberties Union published a pamphlet which contains some legal matter on loyalty oaths (577), and Cooke (604) reviewed some litigation on the subject, but the most important document is a report on teachers' oaths by the National Education Association (649). This study indicated that statutes or state board regulations require pledges of loyalty or oaths of allegiance in twenty-four areas and set forth the texts of the oaths and laws together with the Association's resolutions on the subject.

The Teacher's Contract

Teachers' contracts have received considerable attention. The most important studies in this area have been those contained in the *Fifth*, *Sixth* and *Seventh Yearbooks of School Law* wherein Anderson (579) and Cooke (603, 604) contributed chapters largely devoted to contracts. The court decisions during the period were reviewed and consideration was given to such phases of the subject as the construction of statutory requirements, inception of the contract, formal requisites of contracts, construction of contracts, and termination of contracts. In a recent text on teaching personnel, Cooke (601) devoted a portion of a chapter to certain legal problems pertaining to the validity of teachers' contracts. The Committee on Tenure of the National Education Association (639) analyzed the mandatory state-adopted contract forms in sixteen states in which the use of such forms is required directly or by implication. Rather extensive tables indicate the provisions of these forms and the Committee found that such uniform contracts have much to recommend them. Valid regulations of boards of education may become in effect parts of teachers' contracts. Of importance to this subject, then, is an analysis of such regulations in forty large cities (634). Few such rules were found unreasonable.

Legal Aspects of Teachers' Tenure

This phase of the teacher's legal status received more attention than any other during the period; indeed, it appears probable that in this area the professionalization of public school teachers is more actively on the move than in any other. The development of tenure legislation has been reported regularly in the National Education Association's general reviews of legislation, mentioned previously, and a recent publication digested such legislation for the last year (655). The Committee on Tenure (635, 636, 637) has also issued annual reviews and summaries of court decisions on tenure reporting thirty-six such cases in 1936, thirty-five in 1937, and fifty-two in 1938. The Committee reports that the percent of decisions in favor of teachers has sharply increased. These publications are excellent in quality.

A number of general studies have been made of the legal phases of teachers' tenure. Butsch (587) reviewed several earlier studies. DuShane (608) discussed the status of tenure legislation in the various states, reporting tenure laws in twenty-six states and continuous contract provisions in six more. Baldwin (582) considered certain aspects including the limitations of tenure legislation. The National Education Association Committee on Tenure (641) considered the status of teacher tenure as of July, 1938, analyzing the various state statutory provisions and local regulations on the subject, and digesting research studies of tenure, some of which were on its legal aspects. Scott (660) presented the principles involved in tenure legislation. Hodgdon (618, 619, 620) in the *Yearbooks of School Law* reviewed and digested court decisions on tenure for the three years, presenting the important developments now going on in the courts which are crystallizing the rules of interpretations and application of tenure statutes

and the right of teachers provided therein. The Committee on Tenure (638) published an important and excellently developed critical analysis of teacher tenure legislation setting forth with clarity the teacher's legal status as interpreted by the various courts.

Thiel (665) discussed the rights of teachers under the tenure laws and the Committee on Tenure (642) in another publication considered the tenure of school administrators, concluding that there is a marked trend toward placing superintendents and other administrators under the protection of state tenure laws. Two decisions of the United States Supreme Court (592, 652, 664) on the powers of state legislatures to revoke tenure status received deserved attention, for these two decisions probably constitute the most important declarations of the law of teacher tenure thus far evoked. The rule apparently is that if the legislature has granted a contractual right as contrasted to mere legislative privilege, tenure status may not validly be removed by subsequent legislation from teachers for whom the right has been vested.

Although the various state educational journals contain considerable material on teachers' tenure, such studies refer almost exclusively to statutes and decisions of the states involved so no attempt has been made to include them in this review. Four studies dealing largely but not exclusively with tenure law of certain states are reported in publications of general circulation. Scott (659) described Pennsylvania's new tenure statute, Housman (622) considered the New Jersey tenure law, Breyer (585) centered attention on California, and Caldwell and Garber (588) studied the Minnesota continuing-contract law.

Teachers' Salary Law

In 1937, the Committee on Tenure of the National Education Association (640) issued an extensive study of minimum salary legislation. Twenty states have specific minimum salary standards for teachers. The report summarized these statutes and described their operation including court interpretations. This report was followed last year by a review of minimum salary legislation for the years 1937 and 1938 (647) which presented a state-by-state outline of changes. A portion of the analysis of schoolboard rules made by the Association in 1938 (634) dealt with regulations and schedules governing salaries. Such rules are a part of teacher salary law. H. Davis (605) studied salary laws for teachers in 1937, reviewing the history of legislation, advancing the reasons for such statutes, analyzing the current laws, and setting forth four features which, in her judgment, should be considered in drafting salary legislation. From time to time the digests of court decisions on teachers' contracts in the *Yearbooks of School Law* (604) contain items on salary law.

The Law of Teachers' Retirement

An extensive analysis of the statutory provisions for state teachers' retirement systems was made by the Research Division of the National Edu-

cation Association (643). Statewide retirement systems are established legally in twenty-six states and Hawaii while two states have pension systems. Twelve states have permissive legislation affording options to local districts. A similar, but less extensive study (653) was made in 1937, and in 1939 a review of the legislation of that year appeared (648). DeLany (606) reviewed the various state retirement plans as of the year 1936.

The last two issues of the *Yearbooks of School Law* contained chapters by Gerber (613, 614) on court interpretations and applications of teachers' retirement law, showing the legal principles being developed and applied in adjudicating the rights and limitations of the rights of teachers under retirement law. Hoff (621) made a critical study of five teachers' retirement systems in Minnesota and Wisconsin, stressing the operative features of these systems rather than their legal phases. Rosenfield (658) made an exhaustive and critical analysis of the law of teachers' retirement in New York City. Brown (586) set forth what he considered to be four distinguishing marks of sound retirement legislation.

Legal Aspects of Termination of Employment

Chapters on the teacher's contract in the *Yearbooks of School Law* (579, 603) reviewed court decisions on the termination of such contracts, setting out the principles of law being applied by the courts. There are a number of aspects of the problem of contract termination besides the question of dismissal. Thus Fink (610) considered the issue of releasing teachers upon their request, reaching the conclusion that this privilege should usually be accorded them. There is also the question of the law governing the resignation of teachers under contract, on which subject Cooke (604) considered certain litigation.

Trends discernible in court decisions of cases of teacher dismissal were exhaustively studied by Anderson (581) who noted that the tendency seemed to be to consider abolition of position and immorality as valid causes, and marriage and abandonment of position as invalid ones. Court cases on dismissal were also reviewed in the *Yearbooks of School Law* in chapters by Cooke (603, 604) and Anderson (579), and Hall (615) studied decisions on the subject rendered in 1933 to 1935. The question of a schoolboard's power to delegate authority to dismiss teachers has been raised (590), and Trump (666) studied the legal basis for dismissal of teachers because of expression of political opinions.

The specific question of the dismissal of women teachers who marry has received the attention of the Committee on Equal Opportunity of the National Education Association (633), Mullen (632), Hodgden (616), Cooke (601), and Anderson (580). These studies reviewed legislation and analyzed court decisions, pointing out, in the case of the latter, the division of opinion which exists on the question. The legal remedies open to illegally dismissed teachers have been considered briefly (579, 601).

Powers and Duties of Public School Teachers

This subject has not been extensively studied during the period reviewed. However, Cooke, Hamon, and Proctor (602) gave it some attention; and Secor (661) reviewed statutes and some court decisions on the extension of school discipline beyond schoolgrounds, a review which involved the authority of teachers in this regard. Chambers (598) studied certain court decisions respecting the legal position of a superintendent of schools when schoolboards have interfered in his sphere of authority. The National Education Association study (634) of schoolboard rules also dealt with this question. As to this subject, the later sections on the liabilities and the control of teachers, as well as the earlier section on the dismissal of teachers, should also be consulted.

Controls and Restrictions of Public School Teachers

Beale (583), whose extensive study of this subject was reviewed by Chambers (593) in a previous issue of this publication, gave this matter some further attention although it is not essentially a legal study. In an interesting article, Walker (667) analyzed the judicial interpretation of the meaning of the phrase "conduct unbecoming a teacher" and concluded that the decisions were a hodgepodge leaving common sense as the best guide. A publication of the American Civil Liberties Union (577), though it can hardly be classified as legal research, should be consulted by those interested in the subject. Trump (666) studied the legal basis for dismissal of teachers because of expression of political opinions making a brief but useful contribution, and Chambers (598) touched upon the superintendent's legal position regarding political activities. In another study this same author (599) reviewed the relation of teachers' unions and members thereof to the law—an authoritative statement. The National Education Association study (634) of schoolboard rules also has a bearing on the controls and restrictions of teachers.

Legal Liabilities of Teachers

The annual reviews of litigation involving tort liability in public schools by Lockenour (628, 629, 630) in the *Yearbooks of School Law* afford a useful index to and digest of current developments in this area. Dice (607), in a doctoral dissertation, studied the common law principles governing the tort liability of school district employees and officers. Hodgdon (617) in a helpful article discussed negligence actions against teachers, and Rosenfield (656) in a brief and undocumented article issued a clear and accurate statement on liability for school accidents. Cooke, Hamon, and Proctor (602) touched briefly on the subject of the liability of teachers.

Teachers' and Workmens' Compensation Laws

Apparently the only attention that has been given this subject during the period reviewed has been by Garber (613, 614) in pertinent chapters of the *Yearbooks of School Law* wherein current litigation touching the subject has been digested.

CHAPTER XV

Teachers' Associations, Organizations, and Unions¹

STEPHEN M. COREY

LITTLE RESEARCH dealing with teachers' associations, unions, and other organizations appeared during 1937, 1938, and 1939. The reviewer read some 100 articles of which a smaller number than the 20 appearing in the appended bibliography could be classified as research. The few scientific studies which have been published are almost without exception investigations of an elementary sort. Little is learned from these studies other than how many members of various organizations there are from year to year, and frequently this information is not accurate. Most of the published articles are exhortative (672, 674) although now and then one of them (674) contains incidental data of research interest. These incidental data appear to be presented, however, to substantiate a position already assumed rather than in an attempt to find out what stand is defensible.

With respect to the total number of educational associations an inspection of Part IV of the *Educational Directory* for 1937, 1938, and 1939 revealed no appreciable increase (684, 685, 686). Membership in the National Education Association as well as in the various state educational associations has remained relatively static (675, 676, 677). Of 941,000 teachers in the United States (in 1935-36) the National Education Association claims 20 percent as members, and state associations claim 85 percent. Winn (687) pointed out that these percents do not give an adequate conception of the influence of the National Education Association since more than 700 local teachers' associations are affiliated with the national association. The period during which the largest number of local teachers' organizations were founded was 1910-19 (678). Some of them have been in existence since 1870. In addition to working upon some phase of the salary question, the most commonly reported if rather nebulous activities for such groups were: (a) providing for the professional improvement of members, (b) advancing teacher and pupil welfare generally, and (c) giving educational leadership to the entire community.

Membership in the American Federation of Teachers frequently varies according to the purposes of the writer (668). Data taken from a report of the secretary-treasurer of the American Federation of Labor (673) indicated that the following statement regarding the number of paid-up members for the period was at least official:

Year	Total paid-up membership (to nearest 100)
1937	23,000
1938	29,000
1939	32,000

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 294.

In 1938, approximately two-thirds of the total American Federation of Teachers membership was in Illinois, New York, and Ohio (671). Some additional investigating of the American Federation of Teachers by itself was undertaken in 1938 at the time when serious consideration was given to affiliating with the Committee for Industrial Organization (680, 681). These reports were chiefly studies of the functions and organizational structure of the American Federation of Labor and the C. I. O. but data bearing upon the relationship between the membership distribution of these organizations and that of the American Federation of Teachers were presented.

Little research has been reported regarding the relationship between membership in the various teachers' associations and status with respect to other institutions. Chambers (670) summarized three legal decisions rendered in 1915, 1917, and 1930 which uphold the validity of a contract stipulating that teachers are automatically dismissed if they become members of certain designated organizations. He indicated that the judicial reasoning had changed in such a fashion as to imply a different type of decision in the future. Burke (669) studied the records of achievement of teachers' associations and urged cooperation between them and school-board members in the interests of better public education. Rice (682) circularized the headquarters of the various state educational associations and learned that all but three out of forty-four favored more federal aid to states for educational purposes with great emphasis upon the condition that no strings should be attached to the gifts.

One of the most interesting and comprehensive investigations (679) reported during the period involved an attempt to determine what should characterize the ideal national organization for education. A questionnaire was sent by the Educational Policies Commission to some 2,000 ex-officio consultants and to an equal number of classroom teachers. Replies were received from 572 and 721 in each respective group. The differences that were reported between the teachers and the consultants, most of whom were administrators, might have been anticipated. The teachers were much more insistent upon voluntary membership, and an aggressive attitude in defense of teachers' rights. There was little explicit reference to teachers' obligations. In summary, the inferences made by the Commission from the questionnaire data indicated that the ideal national association for education should:

1. Exist for the maintenance and improvement of educational service.
2. Involve voluntary membership only.
3. Call the attention of the public to the educational aspects and implications of existing socio-economic conditions and of proposed social, economic, or governmental changes.
4. Define and publicize the civic and professional rights and obligations of teachers and, in important test cases, engage in efforts to secure judicial rulings in defense of such rights.
5. Provide a department for each important branch of educational service which will carry with it membership in the general organization.

6. Provide for "co-inclusive" membership with state educational associations.
7. Cooperate actively but never affiliate organically with lay groups working for the improvement of education.

Needed research—In terms of the probable importance of teachers' organizations the dearth of research studies is surprising. As was suggested by Umstadd (683) many more investigations are needed with titles like Robinson's investigation of the American Federation of Teachers which was completed in 1934. The large number of journals of the various teachers' associations are rich sources for research data but they have not been utilized for this purpose. *The American Teacher*, the official organ of the American Federation of Teachers, for example, includes much information which, if culled carefully, would provide insight into the development of the union movement among teachers. It is difficult to understand, first, why the increasing number of educational sociologists so persistently look the other way, and second, why research organizations so rarely study themselves.

In the very near future we should have answers to the following questions, and this list is not exhaustive:

1. What are the research activities of the various official teachers' associations? What problems are being worked on? What personnel is working? How adequate is the financial support?
2. What are the legislative (lobbying) programs of these same organizations? What is the success of these programs? How consistent are the objectives from year to year? What financial provision is made?
3. What duplication of function is there among the various teachers' organizations—federal, state, and local?
4. What is the effectiveness of special subjectmatter groups of teachers as pressure groups? What are their programs? How effective have they been?
5. What significant variations in membership personnel exist among the various organizations?
6. What are the attitudes of the constituents of each association toward its activities?
7. What degree of membership overlapping characterizes the various organizations? What is the significance of this?
8. What has been the historical development of the various established teachers' organizations?
9. To what extent do teachers' organizations cooperate in improving educational services with other noneducational organizations? What are the methods of such cooperation and what is its effectiveness?

CHAPTER XVI

Social Status of the Teacher¹

H. L. SMITH

THE SOCIAL STATUS of the teacher has not been treated specifically in earlier numbers of the *Review of Educational Research*. In fact, the topic represents a relatively new field for research. As the social status of the teacher has changed from time to time, there have grown up many general ideas about the teaching group. While there has been much writing concerning these popular conceptions, relatively little research has been done in the field.

The available material published since January 1937 about the social status of the teacher consists of objective and subjective reports, with the latter being more abundant. Cook (701), Greenhoe (710), Clark (699), Gaumnitz (708), Cook and Almack (702), and the John Dewey Society (714) conducted investigations which produced evidence that was national in scope. Other studies were limited to a state or portion thereof. Fifteen of these are listed in the bibliography (688, 691, 695, 696, 698, 700, 707, 711, 712, 724, 727, 728, 729, 732, 734). Donovan (705), Greene (709), Chamberlain and Meece (697), and Lewis (718) presented case studies, personal experience documents, and descriptive accounts.

Because educational sociology is relatively new and undeveloped, it is unsure of itself, its point of view, its scope, its methods, and its worth. Consequently, data on the social status of the teacher at present are scattered throughout studies dealing primarily with the economic status, the health, the security, and the retirement pay of the teacher. In this issue of the *Review* there are chapters closely related to topics which represent phases of the social status of teachers. An effort has been made to establish certain comprehensive topics as an outline around which the details and facts may be assembled. The following four major topics follow along approved sociological lines and are capable of further subdivision or modification as the research in the field of the social status of the teacher demands.

The Culture and Personality of the Teaching Group

Group life and human life are synonymous; the group is antecedent to the individual and continues after him in time. Groups are social and cultural in character. Through their continuity, culture grows and changes.

Historical continuity of the teaching group—Using the evidence that is available, Elsbree (706) presented the historical continuity of the teaching group throughout the Colonial period and during the early years of the republic. Two parts of Elsbree's book are devoted to this phase of the teacher group in society. After presenting fragments of material relating

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 295.

to the conduct of individuals, both good and bad, he concluded that the teacher of our Colonial schools was as good as his contemporaries and probably better. Chamberlain and Meece (697) and Elsbree (706) presented evidence of the shift from the schoolmaster to the schoolma'am during the nineteenth century. Today 56 percent of all women in recognized professions of the United States are engaged in teaching. In Europe men comprise 41 percent of the teaching group and in the United States men constitute only 19 percent.

The John Dewey Society (714) considered the historical continuity from an economic point of view. The wealth and income of the teaching group presents an index to the social status of that group. Elsbree (706) too presented evidence of the income of early teachers, which in Colonial periods was less than that of the minister but comparable then, as now, to the income of those engaged in crafts and skills. In the growing and expanding economy prior to 1929, the teacher group as well as others, according to the Society (714), failed to recognize important economic factors such as the flattening out of the curve of production, the decreasing opportunities for employment, the failure of the income of the masses to keep pace with the production, and the increasing diversion of income from consumption to accumulation and investment.

Continuity of culture and the teaching group—The culture, or the general items in the whole life of a people, is at any time merely a continuation of its earlier culture reflecting changed conditions. The status of the teacher in this culture is one phase of the social status of the teacher. Whether the teacher shall be a planet or a star is a question about which there has been much writing. After an analysis of teacher status in the United States, it was concluded that the teacher is responsible for the improvement in the quality of life in the coming generation and should work to build up the income of the nation as a whole rather than struggle against other groups for a bigger share of the nation's income (714:7). In outlining the social aims of education which influence the teacher, the Society (714) classified them into the following four periods: (a) the period prior to the nineteenth century when education was advocated as a means of safeguarding popular government; (b) the years from 1830 to 1890 when leaders in education were engaged in the struggle to establish and develop a system of free (tax-supported) schools; (c) a period of great expansion from 1890 to 1929 during which the country saw the erection of palatial buildings and an increase in attendance; and (d) the present period which is indicative of a thorough socio-economic reconstruction. That teachers have not pursued these aims was recognized by the John Dewey Society (714) and further attested by Elsbree (706). Reiff (726), Neilson (722), Brubacher (693), and Keller (715) submitted analyses of the situation and suggested steps to be taken to improve the status of the teacher socially as well as economically.

Group personality—The personality of an individual is considered the sum total of a number of elements, among which are race, habits, atti-

tudes, ideas, and physical characteristics. For this reason it was deemed safe to assign similar characteristics of the teacher group under the classification of group personality.

The children of the favored economic groups do not look forward to teaching. This was the conclusion of Shannon (730) after tabulating the responses of 1,100 students in the Indiana State Teachers College. The occupations of the fathers of students in teacher training were classified as follows: mining and agriculture, 325; manufacturing and commercial enterprises, 215; skilled labor and transportation, 213; professional, 103; and unskilled labor or no answer, 236. This agrees with the earlier reports summarized by Kilpatrick (716) and also with those of Cook and Almack (702), who inquired into the education of the parents of 2,870 teachers and learned that 16 percent of the mothers had attended a high school for four years and 2.6 percent were college graduates, and of the fathers only 10.7 percent had a high-school education and 7.9 percent were college graduates. The vast majority lived and taught in a community of the same size in which they were born; the teachers as a group came from small towns.

The writers reporting on numbers and sex referred to the decennial census of 1930. Donovan (705) reported 1,044,016 persons engaged directly in public education in 1930. Of this number 853,967 were women, of whom 775,801 were white native born; 30,921 foreign born; 45,672 Negroes; and 1,573 of other races. They are relatively young. Cook (701) reported the age of the average rural teacher to be twenty-two years. Elsbree (706) reminded us to consider the fact that this group must be supplied from our seventy-three million adult population.

The problem of local residents and married women as teachers is discussed in Chapter VI of this number of the *Review*. Donovan (705) reported that 77 percent of the female teachers in 1930 were unmarried. She stated that this situation was not due to a lack of numbers in the male population, as there are three and one-half million more men over fifteen years of age than there are women in the United States. Among the reasons given by Donovan, other than the rulings of boards of education, were the economic independence of women, the need for supporting dependent relatives, early school experience, the attitude of men toward women teachers, and the problem of finding a man in the desired class.

Attitudes and beliefs—A social attitudes test of 106 controversial issues calling for judgment of values and 100 true-false statements on public problems and information was submitted during 1936 by the John Dewey Society to a sampling of teachers throughout the union, covering all except five states and the District of Columbia. According to the results, which were analyzed by the John Dewey Society (714:8), the great mass of teachers are reformists and not revolutionists. At either end are the conservatives and the advanced progressives. The conservatives include those who are favorable to bicameral legislatures, chambers of commerce, tariffs, military training in the schools, fascism, depriving relief client of his

franchise, economic individualism, and the survival of the fittest; whereas the advanced progressives include those who are favorable to constitutional revision, greater participation of workers and consumers in the determination of their economic welfare, abolition of factors conducive to war, more governmental ownership, and international cooperation. The teachers tend to be well informed in the fields of conventionalized knowledge but relatively weak in their grasp of vital contemporary issues. The greater the amount of knowledge and insight a teacher possesses in the area of the social sciences, the more likely he is to have liberal tendencies. So far as the broader social trends are concerned, teachers reflect the climate of opinion in which they operate, a phenomenon probably attributable to their family origins and the process of group adaptation. Small-town teachers showed an inferiority in information, according to the 100-statement true-false test, but in liberalism the inferiority was not so pronounced, a fact traceable to the better trained personnel and the intellectual stimuli of populous localities. The emergence of a liberal outlook was determined not by how long one had lived but how, when, and where one had lived. On the attitude-and-information test the men scored higher than the women, and white teachers scored higher than Negro teachers.

The John Dewey Society (714) secured data on the political affiliations of teachers. Three hundred and twenty-nine cases, selected at random in 1932, voted as follows: Roosevelt, 139; Hoover, 133; Thomas, 21; Communist, 0; and 25 did not vote. In the 1936 general election, 309 random cases indicated an intention to vote in this manner: Democratic, 144; Republican, 99; Socialist, 19; Progressive or Labor, 2; undecided, 22; and no answer, 18. The mean annual salary of teachers who were Socialists was \$1,950, followed by Republicans at \$1,750 and Democrats with \$1,550. For New York State the sequence of salaries was the same but not the amounts. There was evidence that tenure teachers are more liberal than nontenure teachers.

Cook and Almack (702) sought evidence upon which to determine an employability quotient by selecting 15 potential teacher types and submitting them for approval or disapproval to 356 board members, 2,870 teachers, 1,443 lay persons, and 1,363 students. The analysis of the data indicates that a known Protestant has a higher employability quotient than a member of any other religious group according to the four types of school persons interrogated. Married women are definitely disapproved by the board members, very slightly disapproved by lay schoolmen, and approved by teachers and students. Generally, the students are the most liberal, teachers next, lay persons third, and the board members a distant last.

Pearson (723) investigated teachers of 38 school systems in Kansas to determine attitudes and suggestions for improving their status, economically and socially. There was general agreement as to the items conducive to improvement, but as to a plan of action no common ground could be found.

Where and how teachers spend their vacations are topics discussed by several investigators (689, 694, 695, 733). How women teachers dress to conform to accepted standards was shown by Rose (728).

Mobility and turnover—Donovan (703) listed certain items of the teaching profession which are conducive to mobility and turnover. Elsbree (706) and the John Dewey Society (714) explained these items historically. But Cook, Almack, and Greenhoe (703) reported that the present teachers of Ohio, West Virginia, and Pennsylvania have a limited area of circulation. Fifty percent have traveled less than 50 miles from the place of their birth to successive teaching positions; less than one-third have gone beyond the 100-mile zone. Shannon's investigation (730) of students in the Indiana State Teachers College indicated a similar narrow band of circulation. Of 1,096 students attending the Teachers College, 138 indicated no intention of ever teaching, 302 were planning to teach temporarily, 310 planned to teach a few years to see if they liked it, and 350 admitted their intentions of teaching for life. Reiff (726) and Greene (709) presented an analysis of the causes for turnover within the teaching group.

Income, debts, and dependents—Chapter XI of this issue of the *Review of Educational Research* deals specifically with teachers' salaries. A brief review of this topic is given here because it is impossible to consider social status without taking the economic status into account (704, 729). The purchasing power of the teaching group exceeds that of the total of the employees of our four largest corporations, and teachers are as likely as any other group to prefer things in good taste (714). Clark (699) found the maximum working life of the rural teacher to be about 50 years, covering the span between the ages of 19 and 69, and the median life earnings to be \$47,000. The urban teacher has a maximum working life of about 48 years (ages twenty-one to sixty-nine) and life earnings of \$102,000. The average income is low in comparison to other professions, but it is about as high as the average earned income of all who are gainfully employed. For women teachers the income is higher than that of all employed women. Mead (719) and Williams and others (735), in their studies in Florida, found that white teachers spend \$23 more per month than they earn teaching and that Negro teachers spend less than \$7 per month over their teaching income, although the salaries of Negro teachers are considerably less. Boyd (692) and Coker (700) presented similar data for North Carolina and Mississippi.

Williams and others (735) found the average Negro teacher of Florida to be \$261 in debt and, of those having a reserve, the average is \$77. For the white teachers of the same area, Mead (719) found the average debt to be \$415 and the reserve to be \$928 which as a rule is less than that of the other professional groups. The Negro teacher spends \$141 per year for professional improvement and the white teacher spends \$120. Gaumnitz (708) reported that 67 percent of the people reporting in a

national survey indicated assets of less than \$1,000 and 20 percent are in debt. The *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association (721) reported comparable figures for the rural teachers.

Few rural teachers report child dependents, but many have dependents other than children (721). Donovan (705) reported that the average single woman teacher supports 2.4 persons. In Florida the average white teacher supports two people wholly and three partially (719), and the Negro woman teacher supports 1.9 persons wholly and 2.7 partially, whereas Negro men teachers support 2.6 persons wholly and an equal number partially (735). Such financial conditions are not conducive to home ownership, adequate housing facilities, modern conveniences, cultural and professional improvement, the assumption of family obligations, or an attitude of economic security (720).

Geographical and Racial Backgrounds of the Teaching Population

The culture of a given territory reflects changes made to conform to the geographical environment. These changes are evidenced through the reactions and attitudes of the inhabitants toward groups within their own culture as well as toward other economics and cultures. It is the purpose here to assemble those attitudes of the teaching group which have their origin in the prevailing economy of the province.

Simon (731) declared that the social position of the teacher varies inversely with the prosperity of the place in which the person teaches. In the impoverished village he is likely to be at the top of the social scale of the community, while in a wealthy suburb he may be near the bottom. The John Dewey Society (714) found that southern teachers did not stand markedly lower in progressive attitudes than northern ones; New England teachers appear to be the most conservative and those of the Far West have a distinct tendency toward liberalism. Teachers reflect the climate of opinion in which they operate. Since teachers move often but not far (710), their reactions tend to conform with the prevailing economy.

Cook (701) observed a number of handicapped groups. In ten states there are laws forbidding the appointment of aliens to teaching positions; custom operates as effectively as law elsewhere. In the South, only white teachers teach white children; in the North white and Negro teachers may compete for Negro schools. Jews are hired as teachers only in large cities. Rural communities are prejudiced against city-reared teachers, easterners against westerners, and southerners against northerners. In political affiliations, a Republican is at a disadvantage in the South and a Communist everywhere.

Social Structures within the Teaching Population

Just as the teaching group is one of a number of groups in society, so there has arisen within the teaching group certain recognized forms and structures which are expressed in customs, institutions, and laws. These

customs, institutions, and laws in turn produce stratification or the formation of castes, classes, or order of status.

Voluntary associations—Voluntary associations of teachers are discussed in Chapter XV of this number of the *Review*.

Ranks within the teaching group—In addition to the differences previously mentioned between teaching groups throughout the country, there are levels within the ranks, such as administrators, supervisors, college teachers, secondary-school teachers, elementary-school teachers, and others. The John Dewey Society (714), Elsbree (706), Cook (701), and others recognized the chain of command which has been borrowed from military and industrial organizations without scrutinizing it to see whether it is best for a democratic system of education. This and the hired-man theory of the teacher are criticized as being in conflict with the scientific method as well as with democracy (725). Cook (701) found that the administrator wants a teacher who will cause no trouble and will sacrifice better teaching for a greater peace of mind. The teacher who is mediocre in ability and inclined to accept the educational *status quo* will be selected over the teacher of greater ability with a record of ideas and courage.

The position a teacher occupies within the strata of the teaching group depends largely on the number of years of training. The positions higher up the educational ladder pay the higher salaries, and consequently they are filled by teachers having the greater amount of preparation. The criteria for ranking within the teaching group appears to be dollars and cents earned or the amount of preparation and not the thoroughness of training or the efficiency of the teacher.

Regulations and Controls of Society over the Teaching Population

In the interests of stability and security, society regulates and controls the behavior of groups and individuals. There is much interaction between these larger groups. They compete in some respects and cooperate in others, each struggling against assimilation by the others. The teachers constitute a group within society which is subject to the pressures and controls of group interaction.

Forms and agencies—The community wants the teacher close but not too close—common but not too common; the teacher dwells in the community but is never assimilated; he is in it but not of it (701, 710). To keep this precarious and anomalous position, forces are at work inside and outside the school. Within the school, students influence the selection of teachers and subjectmatter under threat of a strike (701, 705). The principal, superintendent, and supervisors are prime powers in school control (701). Extraschool forces upon the teacher are special interests, pressure groups, politics, and busybodies (713). Cook (701) also found coercion in the prevailing moral codes, private property concepts, monogamous family, compulsory education, and similar items which tend to make teachers a conservative and respectable jobholding group. Cook and

Almack (702) investigated the behavior forms approved and disapproved for teachers. On the items reported, the schoolboard members are very conservative; the teachers and students are less so. Items of conduct approved for male teachers are usually less approved for female teachers, and conduct not approved in men is more violently opposed in women. For example, living in an apartment, playing cards and billiards, smoking, and not attending church are male prerogatives even in teaching. Young teachers are subject to the greatest pressures (710). Of those teachers reporting, 54 percent habitually conform, 10 percent rebel but conform, 3.3 percent seek to escape, and 14 percent hope to educate the community. The attitudes of the laity toward public education and teachers have been summarized by Bardwell (690). Rogers (727) investigated the community requirements of teachers in New Mexico.

Approximately 97 percent of the responding members participate in one or more community organizations as reported by Cook, Almack, and Greenhoe (703). Twenty percent participate in four or fewer activities and 60 percent participate in more than four activities. Teachers give heavily of their spare time to parent teacher association (67.8 percent), church (41.5 percent), Sunday school (36.7 percent), adult clubs (5 percent), and to lodges (4.5 percent).

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Chapter V. Teacher Selection and Placement

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